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ABSTRACT

The articles and presentations in this publication relate to the general theme of the 1982 Northeast Conference, the foreign language teacher as a lifelong learner. The concept that in the best teachers learning and teaching form a progressive continuum, and that learning and teaching occur simultaneously is the basic assumption underlying all the presentations, workshops, and seminars. This report is divided into four sections. The first section deals with the less-commonly taught languages as well as ideas for intensive training in them. The second section treats contemporary cultures, specifically French, German, Italian, and Spanish. Part three concerns teaching and testing, with articles on merging teaching methods and textbooks, and proficiency testing in second language classrooms. The final section deals with technology and the foreign language classroom, with special attention to the use of audiovisual materials and techniques and microcomputers. (AMH)

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NORTHEAST CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER: THE LIFELONG LEARNER

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Robert G. Mead, Jr., Editor
Toby Tamarkin, Chairman
1982

About the Northeast Conference

It began in 1954 as an outgrowth of the Yale-Barnard Conference on the Teaching of French. During its twenty-seven years, the focus of the annual Conference has been on effective learning of languages, all those commonly taught in this country, ancient and modern, including English as a second language. In preparation for each annual Conference, the Chairman, with the approval of the Board of Directors, chooses a theme and appoints a team of authors to research and write on different facets of the theme. These essays comprise the *Northeast Conference Reports* which serve as the basis for the Conference keynote speech, workshops, and panels. The *Reports* are mailed to Conference preregistrants one month in advance of the Conference.

In addition to the concurrent and general sessions, there are showings of teaching films, workshops, job exchange opportunities, and exhibits of textbooks and other teaching aids. The Conference is supported by hundreds of schools, colleges, and educational associations. Representatives of these institutional members form an Advisory Council, whose members meet at the end of each Conference.

Over the years the Conference has become the largest and most influential gathering of foreign language educators in the country. Some 3,000 teachers from across the nation and many foreign countries now attend each annual meeting. The Northeast Conference has encouraged and aided the formation of other similar regional associations: the Southern Conference in 1965 and the Central States Conference in 1968.

The Conference has five awards: the Donald D. Walsh Foreign Language Research Grant, the annual Stephen A. Freemen Award for a published article on teaching techniques, the Foreign Language Advocate Award, the Nelson H. Brooks Award for Distinguished Service and Leadership in the Profession, and the Northeast Conference Journalism Award for the best reporting, analysis, or commentary in daily newspapers on foreign language education for Americans.

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Preface

The basic concept of the 1982 Northeast Conference, "The Foreign Language Teacher — The Lifelong Learner," grew out of the wishful thinking and reminiscing of the many teachers who attended the successful National Defense Education Act (NDEA) institutes during the halcyon days of the 1960's. They remember a rejuvenation of spirit and purpose which was helpful in combating a syndrome found in stressful occupations such as teaching, and commonly referred to as "burnout." Obviously, the Northeast Conference does not meet long enough to offer a full-scale institute. Extra planning, time, and effort, however, enable us to present a series of "graduate-credit" workshops which focus on four main areas of teacher concern, growth and adaptation to change. These are:

(1) second and third-language competence;
(2) *current* information about the target cultures we teach;
(3) research results and new perceptions regarding testing and educational pedagogy; and,
(4) the hardware and software available for use in today's foreign language classroom.

The authors of the 1982 *Reports* are the credit workshop presenters; thus, the chapters represent their expertise in these four categories. The first section deals with language itself, providing basic information about the less-commonly taught languages as well as ideas for intensive training in them.

Robert L. Baker (Middlebury College, Vermont) gives us an overview of the Russian language and argues that both spoken and written Russian are not nearly so difficult as generally believed. Toshiko Phipps (The Experiment in International Living) and Jean Pierre Berwald (University of Massachusetts at Amherst)

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discuss the importance of learning Japanese and provide many interesting keys to the structure of that language. Rosemarie P. Carvalho (Waterbury Public Schools, Connecticut) describes the Portuguese heritage within our country and the rich historic background of the Portuguese people. Marilyn Conwell and April Nelson (Rosemont College, Pennsylvania) provide an excellent insight into the history of Sign Language and the richness of expression manifested in a language without sound. Marie Cleary (University of Massachusetts at Amherst) presents a new look at Latin and the ways in which it fits into the curriculum as a complement to many other disciplines. Finally, David Gidman (Manchester Community College, Connecticut) is convincing in his argument that spoken Chinese is not difficult to learn.

The second section is designed especially for those teaching French, German, Italian, or Spanish. Realizing how difficult it is to keep abreast of current trends and news via journals, newspapers, or "real-life experiences," we have provided an update in the target language about current events including the family, education, economics, politics, etc. As *Reports* readers, we can enjoy much of the information that will be presented in depth during the credit workshops.

The authors are: John M. Darcey (West Hartford Public Schools, Connecticut) reporting on developments in Spain through the Franco era and especially since his death; Pierre Maubrey (Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.) providing a close look at the contemporary French ambience; Remo J. Trivelli (University of Rhode Island) chairing an up-to-date report on Italy; Barbara Elling (SUNY, Stony Brook) and Karl Elling (St. John's University) presenting many interesting facets of West Germany today; and Frank Dauster (Rutgers University, New Jersey) coordinating the potpourri of events and trends in Central and South America to provide a view of contemporary thought and problems in those areas.

The third section deals with teaching and testing — topics which cannot be neglected as teachers seek to establish and meet carefully selected objectives based on changing student needs. June K. Phillips (Indiana University of Pennsylvania) and Elizabeth G. Joiner (University of South Carolina) have combined their talents to show how to make the current textbook a valuable tool in meeting foreign language goals. Judith Liskin-Gasparro and Protase Woodford (Educational Testing Service, New Jersey) share the basics in proficiency testing and help teachers design student evaluations that match stated objectives.

The final section brings to our attention the use of audiovisual materials and techniques in the classroom and the increasingly popular role of the microcomputer in foreign language learning. Carolyn Parks (University of Maryland) presents an overview of the various sight and sound options available to language teachers along with specific ideas for classroom implementation. John Harrison (Baltimore County Public Schools, Maryland) has compiled the available information on microcomputer use and presents pros and cons, facts and myths, so that teachers can better understand this new "aid."

It is apparent that the language teacher who strives for excellence must be a lifelong learner, attuned to the buffeting winds of change, eager to understand and experiment with new concepts and optimistic about the future of education and her or his contribution to it. We trust the 1982 Northeast Conference and these *Reports* contribute to these ends.

Toby Tamarkin

Introduction

Over the last twenty-odd years many changes have occurred in the traditional concept of language teaching. Among the most important are a broadening of goals, new methods and techniques, new ways to use media and materials more effectively, new concepts in testing and new designs in the tests themselves. Also, vigorous efforts are continuing to increase the awareness of the government and the public of the critical need in today's shrinking world of a knowledge of other languages and cultures among our citizens of all ages. It has always been the goal of the Northeast Conference to help language teachers keep abreast of such changes, and the 1982 Conference is no exception. This year our general theme is "The Foreign Language Teacher: The Lifelong Learner," and all parts of the program and of these reports themselves, as well as the many credit and non-credit workshops and interest sessions are intended to contribute to the realization of this general theme.

Elementary psychology tells us that intelligence is the ability of the organism to survive through appropriate adjustments to changes in its environment, and it follows that learning is certainly one of the most important functions of intelligence. Education, to be sure, has always been concerned with the learning process, but traditional thinking about education has usually conceived of the student, not the teacher, as the learner. In the classroom it is the student, not the teacher, who accommodates to change, who responds differently when the stimulus changes, and it is the teacher who is thought of as controlling stimulus and change.

It is our contention at the 1982 Northeast Conference that the conception of the student-teacher relationship outlined above is deeply-flawed if not completely wrong and *contra natura*. Certainly it is the desire and duty of the teacher to help the student to learn in every way possible, but it is also, to an equal degree, the teacher's duty — and should be his/her desire — to learn as well as teach. Only when learning is mutual can both student and teacher learn to think and act independently and intelligently. Indeed, we hold that in the best teachers learning and teaching form a progressive continuum, an indivisible process, and that the two occur simultaneously.

Another concept or mode of thought which militates against thinking of the teacher as a life-long learner as well as a teacher is the wide and persistent fear of change. This is the tendency to oppose change for many reasons, some of them self-serving, but often in the name of "preserving" certain fundamental, eternal values which apparently are the inheritance of a past "golden age" or Garden of Eden or, at least, of the "good old days." Presumably it is the teacher's duty to learn this basic, constant set of values and then transmit them to the student.

But, as many philosophers have shown since the time of Heraclitus 2500 years ago, change, paradoxically, is the only constant in nature, human life and education. It follows, then, that seeking to preserve the *status quo* in education, sticking to the old "tried and true" objectives, methods and techniques, or seeking to revive them, is a foolish and impossible enterprise albeit one that has had more than a few adherents in the past — and still does.

How to change for the better, then, is the key to improvement in education. And, as we know, there have been changes for the better in language teaching and other fields in goal clarification, methodology and techniques, and these changes have occurred in individual classes, in schools, in school districts and even in state systems of education. Yet education, taken as a whole, can change only gradually and with the passage of time. It must constantly reinterpret and not discard the best values and traditions of the past while at the same time introduce new ideas, perspectives and techniques which improve learning for both teacher and student and enable them to better comprehend and react to the changes occurring all about us in our national social goals and values. Nor in today's deeply-troubled world can we neglect or gloss over as we have sometimes done in the past the profound and too often violent changes which are taking place on a global scale.

These, then, are some of the factors which are common to the immensely difficult and often intimidating task which is faced by teachers today in every nation. And our Northeast Conference starts from the premise that we teachers of other languages and cultures have a key rôle to play in our national education, a rôle that requires us to become life-long learners in deed as well as word. In brief — that we practice what we preach.

Brief quotations from Dean Floyd L. Coppedge of Oklahoma University of Arts and Sciences and our own language-teaching colleague, Professor Lorraine A. Strasheim, on the subject of life-long learning are pertinent here since they reinforce and expand upon some of the points already made.

Dean Coppedge states that the teacher must "become an inquirer along with the student. This is not to say that the teacher occupies the same role in cognitive development as does the student; for we assume the teacher possesses a relatively high level of knowledge of content. What is called for is a teacher who exudes a spirit of inquiry and excitement toward the subject so that the student sees it as alive and relevant to his needs."

And he continues: "The teacher must function as only one of the many resources available to the student. On a progressive basis she or he must "wean students from dependency and permit them to grow . . ." "The teacher must develop skills as a diagnostician, as an expert in motivation (not mere management), and as a program developer. This role is essential to provide the variety of options and to encourage the growth in personal insight on the part of the students so that they can become self-directed, goal-oriented, motivated learners." [1]

Professor Strasheim urges us to go beyond the effort to merely motivate students "toward our school programs as is now the case, but to try to interest them generally in languages as an area of study *sometime* in their lives." She advocates a number of changes in foreign language education which if implemented would add much to life-long learning opportunities:

(1) Provide an infinite variety of both credit and noncredit offerings.
(2) Move away from "standard sequences" and into a diversification of curricula.
(3) Consider language study as a vehicle rather than as an end in itself.
(4) Restructure language experiences to fit the learner rather than expecting the school to restructure itself to meet the requirements of foreign language teachers.
(5) Work with individualization, small groups, simulation, and gaming.
(6) Employ a variety of learning modes and use a variety of materials.
(7) Assist students to plan their studies toward the goal of life-long learning. [2]

Because we will continue to change as individuals and as a national and global society we must continue to learn, and see our task as one of discerning and reacting intelligently to future needs here and abroad, aware always that the horizon is expanding constantly, that visibility is often clouded, but that from time to time flashes of light illuminate the road ahead.

Robert G. Mead, Jr.

Notes

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1. Coppedge, Floyd L. "Lifelong Learning." *An Integrative Approach to Foreign Language Teaching: Choosing Among the Options.* Vol. III, ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series (1976), 9-35.

2. Strasheim, Lorraine A. "Lifelong Language Learning." (Paper prepared for the Southern Conference on Language Teaching, New Orleans, October 2-4, 1975.)

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Less Frequently Taught Languages: Basic Information and Instruction

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Marilyn J. Conwell
April Nelson
Rosemont College
Rosemont, Pennsylvania

American Sign Language

WHAT IS AMERICAN SIGN LANGUAGE?

It is the language of the Deaf Community in the United States of America. As a language, it demonstrates the same characteristics as other languages; it has a vocabulary which changes and adjusts along with the culture, it has an arbitrary set of symbols arranged in specific controlled syntactic patterns; it is capable of expressing a wide range of meaning; it exhibits different styles from the casual to the formal and has both regional and socio-economic dialects; it has an artistic or creative form used for literary purposes; it is the primary means of communication of people who form a specific cultural group. While all this has been evident to the Deaf Community for some time, much is new to hearing persons because research into American Sign Language (ASL) by competent linguists is of recent origin. [We use *Deaf* to indicate membership in the Deaf Community and deaf for the physical condition].

The operative elements of spoken languages, i.e., sound-system, grammatical system, syntax, semantics, find their parallel elements in ASL. The functions of the sound system are treated in two ways: The phonemic distinctions of sound which permit identification of meaning in minimal pairs are accomplished by distinctions of hand-shape, location of the sign, movement of the sign and orientation of the hands. The suprasegmentals of intonation, stress and rhythm are visible in the rhythm of the signed string, pauses used and the body language. A word about body language, most current research shows that we are talking about very specific body signals for intonation, stress, negation and attitude of the signer toward the communication. We are not talking about the general use of the body to underscore an attitude already found in the message being communicated, but an integral part of the message itself.

As regards the grammatical system, ASL more nearly resembles Chinese than the European languages in that plurality, tense and function are rarely inflected in bound functor morphemes; most of this information is conveyed by time markers, quantity expressions and the syntax which juxtaposes modifier and noun or verb. On the other hand, certain aspects of the verbal function are intrinsic to the way in which the sign is executed, e.g., continuous action, action which falls short of conclusion, reciprocity, directionality.

The syntax of ASL is as free as that of Latin because body signals can be used to mark the subject when it falls at the end of the communication, or the topic when it precedes the rest of the communication.

As regards vocabulary, it should be understood that the signs used are as arbitrary as in any other language. Sometimes it is possible to indicate an iconic form of the sign which was the starting point in the etymology of the sign, but the modern form is usually only remotely related to the iconic form. Mime is used for story telling and for those who may not understand a particular sign. New lexical items may begin as mime and then progress to a more concise, normal sign form. Sign language is not mime. Mimetic depiction is normally limited to use as a descriptive or dramatic tool. Fingerspelling is used for proper names and borrowed words (usually from English), but when a sign for the same idea becomes dominant, the fingerspelling is soon eliminated. Just as the hearing person may overenunciate a word which is misunderstood, the deaf communicator may fingerspell the English for a particular sign.

Finally let us be clear that ASL exists apart from English. Its word order and grammatical features make it impossible to speak English and sign ASL at the same time. When we see someone speaking and signing at the same time, we know the person is signing English word order; the result is a pidgin of English and ASL. After all, you could not expect to speak French and write in English simultaneously while preserving the normal character of each language. Many educated deaf persons do sign and speak in English when they are communicating with a mixed audience of deaf and hearing individuals, but this is not the form of the language that they use for the purpose of communication within their own community.

WHAT IS THE ORIGIN OF ASL?

Only recently have we come to a clearer understanding of the structure of ASL and of its status as a true and complete language [William Stokoe began the research effort in 1957 and the studies by Liddell,[1] and Klima and Bellugi date from 1977 and 1979 respectively]. As current research clarifies point after point in the morphology, syntax and semantics of ASL, the confusion and myths are being replaced by a more accurate understanding of its development.

History shows that wherever there have been deaf people, there have been signed languages. Indeed the basic human need for effective communication has led many scholars to believe that the first pre-historic languages were probably gestural in nature.

Much of ASL comes from the French Sign Language (FSL); in fact, FSL influence can be seen in approximately 60% of ASL signs. Therefore, it is of interest to us to know something of the codification of FSL and how it came to the United States. It was Bishop Epée in 18th century France who undertook to modify the signs used by the deaf into a standardized controlled system for the transcription of French into Sign and vice versa. While his system required a separate sign for each morpheme of French (e.g., gender of nouns) and was therefore extremely complex and somewhat artificial, he had considerable impact upon the education of the deaf and was able to found a school for the deaf and thereby a Deaf Community in which the language could evolve naturally. His successor was an Abbé Sicard whose outstanding pupil Massieu was responsible for his position, for saving his life during the French Revolution and for his learning the many signs which existed in the Deaf Community. Sicard taught Massieu French, and Massieu taught Siccard Sign. After the

Congress of Milan in 1880, the French educational system, which had long struggled over the choice between teaching deaf children lip-reading or Sign, finally decided to outlaw Sign in the mistaken belief that Sign would retard linguistic development. FSL subsequently was suppressed and greatly declined in educational usage until recent research in the United States caused French educators to reexamine their position. FSL is now showing phenomenal growth.

It was from France in 1817 that a man named Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet brought Laurent Clerc, a French deaf teacher of the deaf, to New England to establish a school for the deaf in Connecticut which was the first school for the deaf in the United States. It was not, of course, the beginning of sign language in the United States, because our historians show us that sign language had been noted in certain areas many years before that. In fact, there is documented evidence that on Martha's Vineyard, an island in Nantucket Sound, during the 1700's at least one in every 115 people born on the island was born deaf (1 in 25 on the western part of the island). The high concentration of deaf people caused the population in general to learn Sign Language so that all members of the community could communicate and participate in community affairs. When Gallaudet and Clerc founded the school for the deaf, they created, at the same time, a Deaf Community because of the residential nature of the school. In class, the standardized form of French Sign was taught; it became the "colonial language" of the Deaf. The result was, of course, that the indigenous form of the language and the French form were eventually melded into one language which then followed its own evolutionary history. Graduates of this school founded other schools, and Gallaudet's son Edward became the first President of the college, which came to bear his name, which Congress founded in 1864 as the only four-year liberal arts college in the world solely for the Deaf. The residential nature of these institutions created the optimal environment for ASL to prevail and evolve in its own right. Gallaudet, himself, has been quoted as observing that the forms of the language which his father and Clerc had brought from France had so changed that sometimes they were no longer recognizable. Once again, unfortunately, we will find that the conditions which had caused Sign Language to be suppressed in France were to be replicated in America.

We all know that when our students combine foreign language vocabulary and new language syntax they create a pidginized form of language which is not a true language. Many of the teachers of the Deaf thought that the demands of higher education required that signs when used follow English word order and translate English words. This pidginized form of the language passed for Sign Language and its analysis influenced people in thinking that the natural form of the language which the students used in the residence halls was somehow less adequate. Many educators insisted on teaching the deaf to speak and to read lips and prohibited the use of Sign which was thought to retard the students' ability to learn English. ASL was prohibited in the classroom, and there were no formal courses in it for deaf or hearing persons. As the recent linguistic studies begun and nurtured by William Stokoe have brought to light the true nature of ASL and its real capacity for expression, and as psycholinguists and psychologists have shown by their research that early training of deaf children in ASL has increased both their intellectual development and their ability to learn English, ASL has come into favor in the classroom and in educated Deaf Culture. Every bilingual American knows the problems caused by suppression of the non-English language and the role of the home and community in sustaining the language which represents its culture.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF ASL IN DEAF CULTURE?

We should first state that while deaf people throughout the world share many concerns and cultural perspectives, the actual sign language used differs from country to country. There is no international Sign Language, nor international Deaf Community.

There are about 14 million persons in our country with some degree of hearing impairment, of these about 2 million are profoundly deaf. Today ASL is used by at least half a million Deaf people in the United States. Many of the hearing-impaired people were deafened at a later age, and only some have begun to be interested in ASL. Deaf adults who use ASL have usually attended schools for the deaf (residential for the most part) which were like one big family. Since 90% of deaf children are born to hearing parents, it falls to the other 10% (born of deaf parents) to teach their native language to the other children. Many Deaf people work in certain businesses, i.e., newspaper printing plants, garment factories, post offices, computor data processing companies, etc. Eighty-five percent of the Deaf marry Deaf mates. Hence in education, work, and social settings, the Deaf people have formed closely-knit circles where they can interact freely using their preferred mode of communication. ASL owes its continued existence to this Deaf Community and, at the same time, functions as one of the primary unifying factors for the Community itself.

When ASL was misjudged to be a concrete (non-verbal) language incapable of expressing abstract concepts, the people who used ASL were labelled "deaf ghetto".[2] At first Deaf people went so to speak "underground" and formed social clubs where they could get together, relax and exchange news, gossip, and information with each other. The network grew to be rather extensive; Deaf Clubs have tournaments for various sports such as basketball, bowling, softball, etc., on local, state, regional and national levels. The group which coordinates all these activities, including the international games for the Deaf, is the Athletic Association for the Deaf (operated by deaf people). There are also state, regional and national conventions; at such functions all communication is exclusively in ASL. Finally Deaf Culture is being recognized as an important "minority" or "ethnic" culture in the USA today.

Those who felt that Deaf Culture should not be recognized because there was "no literature" failed to consider the folklore and visual history which had been handed down from one generation to another. The film collection begun by Veditz of the National Association of the Deaf in 1913 and the many video tapes of today have provided us with a collection of Deaf folklore, visual (signed) history, poetry and plays written in sign. While these were formally only known in the Deaf Clubs, today the general public can attend theatrical and film presentations in ASL.

There are many small differences between Deaf and Hearing Cultures. These differences are seen in the freedom to touch another person to call his attention, the conversational distance between two individuals (3 to 5 feet as opposed to 2 to 3 feet), eye contact between speaker and listener being mandatory, the vital importance of pointing, and the use of much more facial expression to indicate feelings, moods, reactions, etc. In order to be a member of the group, one must accept their mode of communication (ASL) regardless of the extent of any hearing problem. Deaf Clubs will accept a person who does not know Sign but is willing to learn and really wants to support the group functions with a good attitude. If the person shows patronizing traits towards its members because he has better speech, the members will avoid him (though not formally expel him) and he will soon drop out on his own. Members of the Deaf Community are very sensitive to attitudes of people towards them. Through its concern for the individual and through its use of ASL the Deaf Community has both retained its own strength and preserved the language which is essential to it.

HOW SHOULD HEARING PEOPLE BE TAUGHT ASL?

Until recently, ASL instruction has relied heavily on English-ASL vocabulary lists, memorized dialogues or narratives, and translation reminiscent of foreign language instruction of the past. An interactive, multi-skills approach which helps students to understand and communicate in culturally correct context would seem to serve our students best. The techniques which are used to teach ASL should take into account the advances in the foreign language teaching profession and the research findings on the structure of ASL itself. The foreign language teaching profession has a great deal to offer to the teachers of ASL. In return, foreign language teachers will enjoy applying their analytic skills and learning strategies to a new language which is visual rather than oral in its focus; they will find that their new understanding of this language and the community which uses it will enrich their own lives.

Just as we all must learn to listen for those sounds which help to distinguish meaning in the spoken words of most languages, the same attention to detail must be given by the student of ASL who must develop the visual acuity needed to notice the visual cues which are essential to differentiating similar but different signs. The student must learn to notice which way the hands face and how they move, because the one handshape will take on a different meaning if placed near a different part of the body, or if moved in a different way. Therefore, one must learn to distinguish certain handshapes (WORLD [w-shaped][3] vs. YEAR [s-shaped]), to notice in which direction the sign moves (COME [toward signer] vs. GO [away from signer]), whether one or both hands are used (LIKE [one] vs. INTEREST [both]), which way the hand faces (MINE [toward signer] vs. YOUR [toward other person]), and the location (MOTHER [at chin] vs. FATHER [at forehead]). Teachers must provide receptive exercises which permit the student to contrast segmental signals in simple context in order to distinguish minimal pairs, e.g.:

My *mother* is French My *father* is French	[same handshape, different position]
Come home *Go* home	[same handshape, hand moves in different direction]

Another facet of receptive skills is an ability to perceive the suprasegmental body signals correctly. Body signals must be used to indicate a yes-no question (raised eyebrows), a wh-question (knitted brows), negation (side-side head shake), a topic preceding or a subject following the verb (head nod), incomplete action (interruption of the sign), repeated action (circular signing form), etc. For this reason, visual comprehension exercises form an essential part of the Sign Language curriculum, e.g., contrasting structures in drill or in context such as:

Do you like meetings?
I do like meetings.
I don't like meetings.
Meetings, I don't like!

In productive skills, hearing persons will have the same problems that all new language learners experience as they try to pronounce new sounds, only here the question is one of developing physical dexterity. They will also prefer to learn vocabulary and reproduce the same in strings which conform to the patterns of their own languages. It is necessary to learn the patterns of the language and then place all new vocabulary in these patterns. This is especially important in ASL because the citation form of the sign (the vocabulary word in isolation) may turn out to be somewhat modified when the sign is used as part of an ongoing communication, e.g., in order to sign "I do not know", it is only necessary to give the sign KNOW a downward motion; no other signs are needed.

Pattern drills have served the foreign language teacher well if it was recognized that they exercised certain forms of the language and were not intended to be complete communications in and of themselves. Pattern drills are needed in order to have the student acquire the new syntactic patterns of ASL and in order to teach the body signals required when one pattern (e.g., subject-verb-object) is switched to another (e.g., verb-object-subject). It offers, with visual or physical stimuli, the opportunity to teach vocabulary within a known pattern and to begin the interchange which will be the basis of conversation. Consider the following example, remembering that the question must be asked with the body signal of raised eyebrows and the answer given with an affirmative head nod:

Question:	Answer:
YOU MAKE DINNER YOU?	YES, I MAKE MYSELF.
(Did you make the dinner?)	(Yes, I made it myself)
LETTER HE WRITE HE?	YES, HE WRITE HIMSELF.
FLOWER YOU GROW YOU?	YES, I GROW MYSELF.

Because body signals are essential to the communication, our students must learn to have more expressive faces and bodies than are normally required of us when we have voice and intonation to carry our intention. Dialogues which all foreign language teachers have used, and sometimes overworked, have their place in the ASL curriculum because they offer the opportunity to encourage normal (even though simulated) conversation on a topic which would reveal some of the concerns of the Deaf Community. At the same time, there is no better place to stress the congruity between the body signals and the signs used. If someone signs a question without looking puzzled, a statement is assumed. If someone tells a sad story with a blank expression, a certain degree of sarcasm is conveyed just as it would have been if the intonational contour had been inappropriate in a spoken language. The student cannot gain competence in the total communication through the translation of isolated sentences because while concentrating on the translation, the body language is lost. Given the opportunity of practicing a realistic dialogue where the subject matter is known, the student will learn to practice the appropriate body signals. It is then helpful for the teacher to lead the student from learned dialogue to free conversation through dialogue manipulation, branching and completion. With the help of a picture or drawing representing the dialogue, the student can be led from dialogue to narration by describing the scene, summarizing the dialogue and providing an appropriate ending to the narrative.

Finally hearing people must be helped to overcome their shyness about pointing because this is how pronouns are conveyed. The sentence "He helped her" in English could easily refer to Betty or Jane; in ASL, the signer points to the proper person thus avoiding any ambiguity. Furthermore, spacial reference points are used for people, things and places even though they are not physically present. The name of the person or place (or the sign for the thing) is fingerspelled at a location in front of the signer; thereafter, the signer points to that location to refer to that person, place or thing. It is necessary to assign different locations for each reference needed and remember which is which. Students can be helped to learn the use of discrete reference points by placing the printed name or the picture at the desired location and having the student tell a short narrative, and then repeat the narrative without the help of the markers.

In the time available for an intensive course, one can help class members to establish an understanding of basic ASL structure, introduce them to Deaf Culture, and help them experience communication in ASL through the development of their own receptive and expressive skills. Needless to say, one cannot learn an extensive repertoire in a short time, but a sufficiently rewarding introduction to ASL (or any language) will often provide the impetus for students to continue their studies in their own communities.

In conclusion, it is hoped that through the influence of the foreign language profession[4] more support materials will soon become available to ASL teachers, e.g., mounted pictures, diagrams, transparencies, visually oriented texts, etc. Perhaps experimentation will be tried with a split screen video to parallel the equivalent of a language laboratory where the student can compare his performance with the master. In the future we hope that it might be possible to mount intensive residential training programs resembling the NDEA institutes which could provide a real base for those needing ASL in their work, be it in education, law, health sciences or social services. In such a program, the Deaf Community could provide the "native informants" and the student could be required to use only ASL for a period of two or three weeks while receiving intensive language training coupled with the sociological, psychological and cultural presentations needed for them to work effectively with the Deaf Community.

Notes

1. Cf. Stokoe, W. *Sign Language Structure: An Outline of the Visual Communication System of the American Deaf.* University of Buffalo, Occasional Paper 8, 1960; and Liddell, S. An Investigation into the Syntactic Structure of American Sign Language. Diss., University of California at San Diego, 1977 (and soon to be published). Cf. also for chronology of research, *Sign Language and the Deaf Community* in our bibliography.
2. Cf. *Deaf Like Me* (in our bibliography) for a clearer understanding of the impact of the term "deaf ghetto" and the controversy over teaching children ASL.
3. When a word is given in capital letters it stands for a single sign.
4. The 1982 Northeast Conference and these Reports mark the first time a foreign language teaching association has sponsored a presentation on ASL and welcomed both its teachers and students. The authors wish to express their gratitude to the Directors of the Conference for bringing together these two groups to their mutual benefit.

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Chinese

THE IMPORTANCE OF CHINESE

Having acquired an interest in Asia while on military service in the Second World War, I decided to take up Asian Studies. I was aware that my college had been offering Japanese in one of the special programs for military personnel during the War, so when I returned to the college I went to see my former advisor, a professor of Romance languages, and enquired whether the college planned to continue offering Japanese or possibly Chinese. "No!" came the curt reply. "Nor Malay nor Swahili either!"

My professor's reply very well illustrates the attitude toward non-European languages among faculties — not just professors of languages — until recent years. Ancient languages with vast literary accomplishments such as Chinese were lumped together with languages which had acquired alphabets only after contact with Western man. They were not regarded as having the civilizing and humanizing value of German, French, Spanish or Italian. The study of Chinese (and Japanese, Sanskrit, Arabic, *etc.*) was confined to the great universities of the world. There the few scholars who could afford to study esoteric subjects, their ranks swelled somewhat by missionaries and others whose special concerns required some knowledge of the language, were able to obtain instruction.

The failure of many educated and intelligent people at the college and university level to support or advocate the study of Chinese was due to a number of factors: (1) an exaggerated notion as to its difficulty; (2) a failure to comprehend the vastness and quality of its literature; and (3) the general disparagement of things Chinese resulting from China's political and economic weakness from the Opium War to the victory of Mao Xe-dong.

It is true that a complete mastery of the Chinese language to the extent that one could pick up and read anything that has been written in the language in the past four thousand years would require years of study, and one should add, is beyond the ability of all but a few Chinese. However, the spoken language is certainly one of the world's simplest, and the acquisition of the ability to read modern Chinese is not as difficult as has often been assumed.

The amount of literary material available is overwhelming — literature of a quality every bit as fine as that produced in any European language. One obviously cannot judge literary output by its quantity, but it is at least worth noting that until industrialism expanded the output of everything in the West, China had produced more printed books than the rest of the world combined. Of course, they had started printing at least six hundred years earlier. An anthology of poetry of the Tang dynasty (618-907) contains nearly fifty thousand poems by 2200 poets.

As to the third factor mentioned above, one might remark that it was amazing and enlightening how the disparaging attitude towards things Chinese in the Western world changed after the Chinese Communist armies nearly succeeded in driving General MacArthur into the sea in the Korean War. It seems that when it comes to deciding what languages are important to us power is more significant that literary quality.

Recently a student who had elected my Chinese language class asked me what use the language would be to him. Without really meaning to be facetious I replied "Well, you will be able to talk to about a billion people." It has been a traditional assumption of liberal education that one should not have to justify the teaching of any subject by its practical worth. That a subject expands human knowledge ought, ideally to be sufficient reason. But if practical considerations are needed, the existence of a billion humans who speak the language, who buy and consume products — especially American products, who are politically, economically, scientifically and technologically active, and who might be constrained to side with us against a common enemy is, I should think, sufficient.

THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE

The nature of the Chinese writing system makes it necessary to treat the language somewhat differently than one would a language making use of an alphabet. It is conceivable that one could learn to read Chinese without any knowledge of the spoken language. Since the written language does not automatically convey pronunciation, systems of romanization have been devised for westerners learning the language.This is clearly unnecessary for a Chinese, who already knows the spoken language when he begins to learn characters. He simply learns, for example that the word *mă* (horse) is written 馬. Europeans developed systems of romanization suited to the needs of the various European languages. For example the Chinese word which in the English Wade-Giles system was rendered "ch'en", in the system used by the French became "tchen", since "ch" in French is like English "sh". The Wade-Giles system, which was the one used generally by scholars and learners of the language until recently, had certain weaknesses and was confusing for beginners. Tones were sometimes indicated by superscript figures, although these came to be generally replaced by diacritical marks. This system made use of ch, p, t, and k for the English sounds /j/, /b/, /d/, and /g/, and ch', p', t', and k' for the English sounds /ch/, /p/, /t/, and /k/.

At about the time of the Second World War, Yale University scholars developed a system more realistically related to English usage. Another system which the Chinese themselves frequently incorporated in dictionaries, made use of orthographic change to indicate tone. The Chinese themselves have toyed with a number of systems, including one that would have made use of Cyrillic! The Communist government has, of course, been talking about substituting a romanized language for characters since its days in Yenan. So far it has adopted an official romanization called *pin-yin* which is now used also by all major periodicals in this country, much to everyone's confusion. The new system has the dubious advantage of using

Roman letters in a fashion foreign to all European languages. Particularly confusing to the English speaking person are the letters c, q and x, which represent Wade-Giles ts', ch' and hs. This is the system now in general use for the teaching of Chinese, although some institutions still use the Yale system. There is no question, however, that students of China will for a long time be confronted with the necessity of familiarizing themselves with an appalling array of systems of romanization. The accompanying chart gives both Wade-Giles and *pin-yin* together with a set of phonetic symbols based on the Chinese writing system and not in common use.

In spite of the complexities of the systems of romanization, spoken Chinese is really a very simple language. Its chief difficulties for Europeans are the tones and the lack of cognates. Cognates, however, as anyone who has studied another Indo-European language well knows, can be false friends. The formation of tones ought not to pose any problem for English speaking people. We use tones all the time, the difference from Chinese being that meaning and tone are not so closely bound up. For example, take the Chinese word *lu* and pronounce it as though it were "Lou", the abbreviation of the name Louis. We can illustrate the four tones in which this Chinese word can be uttered by the following sentences:

Lū	(You have called Lou on the telephone, he has answered and you recognize his voice.)
Lú?	(Someone has just entered the house and you are enquiring if it is your husband Louis.)
Lǔ	(Your small boy Louis is misbehaving and you are reprimanding him in a kindly fashion.)
Lù	(You are trying to get Louis' attention.)

In the case of the Chinese language the meanings for each sound are, lū — to pout out the lips; lú — stove; lǔ — native state of Confucius; lù — road.

What are some of the other characteristics of the Chinese language? In terms of what English speaking people would generally call words, Chinese has approximately 500. Each of these can theoretically be uttered in each of the four tones. This makes for approximately 2000 distinct monosyllabic sounds. These figures are by no means exact, and are only meant to indicate the paucity of vocables in the language. The opportunity for misunderstanding or for punning is clearly enormous.

Chinese, however, do not speak only in monosyllables, but generally in monosyllables and groupings of monosyllables, Thus, *ta*, he; *tamen*, they; *kàn*, to read, look at; *lǎoshi*, teacher; *wúxiàndiàn*, radio; *dianyěngr*, movie; *diànhuà*, telephone; *gonggòngqìche*, bus.

With rare exceptions, there is no plural, nor is there any gender. *Wǒ*, I; *Nǐ*, you; *Ta*, he, she (a neuter pronoun, the delight of women's lib); these are made plural by adding *men: Wǒmen, Nǐmen, Tamen.*

There is no declension of nouns or conjugation of verbs. The grammatical value of a noun is indicated as in English, by its position in the sentence. Tense other than the present is indicated, as it is to a considerable degree in English, by the use of auxiliary words or by the context.

The word order affects the meaning.

shàng — on, above; upper, superior; top, summit; to ascend; up, upward.

NEW LATIN TRANSCRIPTION

Draft Resolution passed at the
60th Meeting of the State Council
on November 1, 1957, and the
corresponding Wade-Giles Romanization.

INITIAL SOUND

ㄅ B p	ㄆ P p'	ㄇ M m	ㄈ F f	
ㄉ D t	ㄊ T t'	ㄋ N n		ㄌ L l
ㄍ G k	ㄎ K k'		ㄏ H h	
ㄐ J ch(i)	ㄑ Q ch'(i)		ㄒ X hs	
ㄓ ZH ch	ㄔ CH ch'		ㄕ SH sh	ㄖ R j
ㄗ Z ts	ㄘ C ts'		ㄙ S s	

RHYME

	ㄧ I i(y)	ㄨ U w	ㄩ Ü yü
ㄚ A a	ㄧㄚ IA ya	ㄨㄚ UA wa	
ㄛ O o		ㄨㄛ UO wo	
ㄜ E ngo	ㄧㄝ IE yeh		ㄩㄝ ÜE yüeh
ㄞ AI ai		ㄨㄞ UAI wai	
ㄟ EI ei		ㄨㄟ UEI wei	
ㄠ AO ao	ㄧㄠ IAO yao		
ㄡ OU ou	ㄧㄡ IOU yu		
ㄢ AN an	ㄧㄢ IAN yan	ㄨㄢ UAN wan	ㄩㄢ ÜAN yüan
ㄣ EN en	ㄧㄣ IN yin	ㄨㄣ UEN wen	ㄩㄣ ÜN yün
ㄤ ANG ang	ㄧㄤ IANG yang	ㄨㄤ UANG wang	
ㄥ ENG eng	ㄧㄥ ING ying	ㄨㄥ UENG weng	
ㄨㄥ ONG ung	ㄩㄥ IONG yung		

mǎ — horse.
mǎ shàng — on horseback.
shàng mǎ — to mount a horse, or an A-1 horse.

There are primary and secondary meanings. Thus, *mǎ shàng*, which literally means on horseback, has come to mean "immediately."

The same word may behave as a noun, adjective, verb, adverb or preposition, depending on position or context. Note *mǎ shàng* and *shàng mǎ* above and the following uses of shàng:

Wǒ zǒu shàng qù (I am going up — adverb)
Ta zài shàngbian (He is on topside — adjective)
Ta zài zhuozi shàng (He is on the table — preposition)
Wǒ shàng shan qù (I am climbing the mountain — verb)
Wǒ zài shàng, ta zài xìa (I am on top, he is underneath — noun)

There has been much misinformation about the extent and multiplicity of chinese dialects which has led to an exaggerated notion of the difficulty of communicating in China. With the exception of the region along the coast from Shanghai south to Canton, most of China is Mandarin speaking. And, of course, all students learn *gúoyǔ* (the national language) in the schools.

THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE

The Chinese written language consists of some 55,000 characters as listed in the great 17th century K'ang Hsi dictionary (the equivalent of the Oxford English Dictionary). The number is appalling, and if left unexplained is enough to frighten the hardiest souls away from the language. The number includes variant and archaic forms, and, of course, highly technical vocabulary not used or required by most people. My own Chinese teacher once said that if one knew 1000 characters really well he could read anything without difficulty.

These characters go back nearly 4000 years to the Shang dynasty. The basic principles on which they were formed were laid down at that time and have not changed, although the style of writing has changed considerably. It is impossible in a short description to deal with all the principles of their formation. Suffice it to say that they are not a collection of irrational chicken tracks. The index to a Chinese dictionary consists of 214 radicals:

NUMERICAL LIST OF RADICALS

		10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200	210	
0		儿	勹	(3) 口	宀	巾	彳	方	毋	爿	生	矛	糸 糹	肉 月	艸 艹	谷	辛	阜 阝	音	髟	麻	齊	0
1	(1) 一	入	匕	囗	寸	干	(4) 心 忄⺗	无 旡	比	片	用	矢	缶	臣	虍	豆	辰	隶	頁	鬥	(12) 黃	(15) 齒	1
2	丨	八	匚	土	小	幺	戈	日	毛	牙	田	石	网 罒⺳	自	虫	豕	辵 辶	隹	風	鬯	黍	(16) 龍	2
3	丶	冂	匸	士	尢 兀尣	广	戶	曰	氏	牛	疋	示 示礻	羊	至	血	豸	邑 阝	雨 ⻗	飛	鬲	黑	龜	3
4	丿	冖	十	夂	尸	廴	手 扌	月	气	犬 犭	疒	禸	羽	臼	行	貝	酉	靑	食	鬼	黹	(17) 龠	4
5	乙	冫	卜	夊	屮	廾	支	木	水 氵氺	(5) 玄	癶	禾	老 耂	舌	衣 衤	赤	釆	非	首	(11) 魚	(13) 黽		5
6	亅	儿	卩 㔾	夕	山	弋	攴 攵	欠	火 灬	玉 王	白	穴	而	舛	襾 覀	走	里	(9) 面	香	鳥	鼎		6
7	(2) 二	凵	厂	大	巛 川巜	弓	文	止	爪 爫	瓜	皮	立	耒	舟	(7) 見	足	(8) 金	革	(10) 馬	鹵	鼓		7
8	亠	刀 刂	厶	女	工	彐 彑	斗	歹 歺	父	瓦	皿	(6) 竹	耳	艮	角	身	長 镸	韋	骨	鹿	鼠		8
9	人 亻	力	又	子	己	彡	斤	殳	爻	甘	目 罒	米	聿	色	言	車	門	韭	高	麥	(14) 鼻		9
	9	19	29	39	49	59	69	79	89	99	109	119	129	139	149	159	169	179	189	199	209		

In dictionaries characters are indexed according to radicals and number of strokes. Some dictionaries arrange characters in the index by total number of strokes, and then within that grouping by the radicals. The order of the radicals itself is by number of strokes. In the table below, the number of strokes is indicated by a number in parentheses. Thus, (3) followed by 口, radical thirty and all others through radical 60 彳 are three strokes. Other dictionaries arrange the index by radical first, and then under each radical characters are arranged in order of the number of remaining strokes in the rest of the character. For example, 話 has thirteen strokes. 言, the radical, has seven. The character would be listed with characters having six strokes under radical 149 言.
Every character in the Chinese language is either a radical or is made up of a radical and another element called a phonetic, and may be classified according to the radical and the total number of strokes in writing it. The radicals are words which one would expect to find basic in a society such as that of the Shang dynasty — one, two, ten, man, mouth, big, earth, mountain, sun, moon, grain, fire, water, stone, goat, silk, words, clothing, *etc.* Generally the radical is on the left side of the character or at the top. There are exceptions which can be puzzling. In the character 灣 pronounced "wan" (the second syllable of Taiwan) 氵 is the radical #85, and provides a clue as to the meaning. It is the radical for water, and "*wan*" is a bay. Radicals are usually helpful in ascertaining the meaning. The phonetic element, in this case 彎, is often helpful in giving the pronunciation. This particular character is one of the longest in the language, consisting of twenty five strokes. However, it is a good example of the fact that characters are not just a hodgepodge of strokes. This phonetic consists of three distinct and easily recognizable elements, 言, 糸, 弓, all of which are radicals. Below are some

words which have a common phonetic 羊, meaning "sheep" and pronounced *yáng*. It will be readily seen that they are all pronounced yang or rhyme with yang: Pronounced "yang": 佯, to feign, pretend, radical #9 "man"; 徉, to, stray, roam, radical #60, "to step with left foot;恙, ill, radical #61 "heart"; 洋, ocean, radical #85 "water"; 样, aspen, radical #75 "tree". Rhyming with yang, pronounced "xiang"祥, 詳; pronounced "chiang"詳, 祥; pronounced "zang" 牂. It will also be seen in the first grouping that the radical assists in remembering or discovering the meaning.

Characters clearly eliminate the ambiguity which is present in the spoken language. There are five words "shi" all pronounced in the first tone which mean respectively poetry, teacher, lion, corpse, and louse. The opportunities for error, not to say embarrassment, are obvious. To avoid this, in speech poetry may be referred to as *shige*, teacher as *laǒshi*, lion as *shizi*, corpse as *shishen*, and louse as *shizi*. With the characters, however, it becomes immediately apparent which "shi" is meant:

詩	shi — poetry
師	shi — teacher
獅	shi — lion
屍	shi — corpse
虱	shi — louse

It should be clear that far fewer words are necessary to express oneself clearly in the written language than in the spoken, and one of the beauties of classical Chinese is its terseness. Indeed, even prose verges on poetry. And the Chinese of Confucius and Mencius, of the great historian Ssu-ma Ch'ien is not difficult. Over the centuries, however, literary Chinese became burdened with many extremely esoteric allusions so that only the most erudite could read it. Eighteenth and nineteenth century government documents are a nightmare to read. As a result, the early twentieth century saw an increasing demand for the language to be written as it is spoken. Out of this evolved in the 1920's what is known as *báihùa* — "clear speech". Good báihuà, however, does not record every word that would be used in speech, which would be not only unnecessary but frightfully boring reading. The years following 1920 saw emerge some writers of the first rank — Mao Tun, Lao Shaw, Kuo Mo-jo, Pa Chin — whose Chinese was not so vastly removed from the best of the classical past. Below is a phrase written in *Guwén* (classical Chinese) (a), translated into *báihùa* (b) and into English (c). It will be seen that the classical language achieves a great economy of words.

(a)

初鄭武公娶于申曰武姜生莊公及共叔段.

(b)

起初的時候鄭武公在申國娶來的夫人叫武姜生了莊公和共叔段兩個兒子.

(c) Formerly Duke Wu of Cheng took to wife a women of the state of Chen named Wu Ch'iang, who gave birth to two sons, Duke Chuang and Kung-sun Tuan.

It may be asked why, if the Chinese government has adopted an official system of romanization, characters continue to be used. In part it must be attributed to the difficulty of bringing about so revolutionary a change. In part it is undoubtedly due to the tremendous prestige of characters. They are beautiful to look upon, and even an aspirin sign is attractive in Chinese. In part it is certainly the danger of ambiguity. If you are misunderstood in speech the situation is easily rectified. Not so in print. Since 1949 the Communist government has simplified many of the characters. My own opinion is that although the new characters are shorter as to number of strokes required to write them, they are not necessarily easier to learn or remember. Some of the helpful qualities of the old characters are lost in the simplification. With modern electronic systems for processing information, the elimination of characters may not be necessary.

The future of Chinese language study in the United States is clearly tied to the future of language study generally. As the United States has waxed in power, the eagerness of Americans to learn foreign languages seems to have waned proportionately. No thinking person can help deploring this parochialism. Chinese is intrinsically worthy of study as the language of a people which has the longest continuous civilization on the planet and which has accomplished great things in literature and the arts. Today it behooves us to study it for practical reasons as well. But we should not have to wait until we are in graduate school to make the attempt.

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Japanese

WHY STUDY JAPANESE?

The reasons for studying about Japan are compelling. Within the short span of a decade, the Japanese have distinguished themselves in a variety of areas that include sports, the arts and commerce. They have gained international supremacy in the manufacture of automobiles, photographic equipment, electronics and wristwatches, just to name a few industries. Scarcely a day passes without some mention of the Japanese in newspapers or magazines. Recognition of Japanese talent is not restricted to North America either; indeed the entire world has been made aware of its existence. Names such as Sony, Seiko, Minolta and Toyota can readily be seen on large neon signs in major cities everywhere.

Japan's success in business has been improving year after year. In certain cases, Japanese manufacturers learned their lessons from western firms shortly after World War II, improved upon them and incorporated their unique ideas and philosophy of doing business in order to achieve phenomenal growth on the world market, often at the expense of their competition. Recent declines of sale of American made automobiles point out but one example of Japan's influence in this industry. We are now living in an era where American and European manufacturers are traveling to Japan to study production techniques to see if any lessons can be learned. The Japanese, meanwhile, continue their expansion abroad by opening plants and sales offices throughout the world.

Within the past few years, both presidents Carter and Reagan have asked the Japanese to limit their exports to the United States in order to permit American firms to compete more favorably. When the late prime minister Ohira arrived in the United States in 1980, his response to President Carter was an admonition to American businesses to go to Japan and "sell, sell, sell!" It is common knowledge that most Americans doing business in Japan do not speak Japanese, a factor which cannot help but limit their success. Nowhere is the adage more true that one can buy in any language but must sell in the client's tongue. The ability to speak Japanese would not only help Americans sell their products but it would strengthen their position with respect to other international firms represented there.

For many years, American students of foreign languages have been focusing their attention on French, German and Spanish. In these times, however, as America optimistically strives to sell its products abroad and again achieve a strong degree of success in the world marketplace, it will find that these traditional languages will no longer suffice when dealing with non-European world leaders. Such languages as Arabic, Chinese and Japanese have indeed become more important and seem destined for more widespread use than has previously been the case. With important differences existing in production, marketing and sales, America will have to study these areas, their cultures and their languages in order to regain its importance in international trade.

Japan's successes are not limited to the commercial sector. In 1968, Yasunari Kawabata won the Nobel Prize for literature. As a result of increasing attention being paid to Japan, its industries and its culture, there is more reason now to learn Japanese than ever before. Perhaps some day, Americans may even have a sizeable group of Japanese speakers practising business in Tokyo to rival the 10,000 English speaking Japanese businessmen in the United States.

A BRIEF HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE.

(This section is based on Peter Temm's booklet *The Japanese Language*. We express our gratitude to Japan Air Lines for permission to reproduce sections of this work.)

One point of view regarding communicating in Japanese suggests that one reverses the English word order, omits articles and plurals, pronounces words in a Japanese manner, substitutes *des* for the copulative *to be* and raises the voice when a question is intended. Theoretically then a question such as *restaurant des?* would be easily understood. Although the foregoing sounds like an oversimplification, it may indeed be a step to communication. By adding the question marker *ka*, one is on even surer footing as one asks, *MacDonardo deska?* Is this a Mac Donalds? Although, in truth, there is not an absolute reversal of the word order, it is true that in most simple sentences, the verb does come at the end of the sentence as in *kono camerawa Minolta des*, this camera is a Minolta.

Another interesting phenomenon regarding Japanese is that many foreign words have become part of the language. One sees this readily in such words as pan (bread) from Portugese, arbeito (an extra job) from German and countless words from English from gasorin to aisu kurimu (ice cream). As a matter of fact, one of every four or five words has its source in a language foreign to Japanese. This assimilation of foreign words began many centuries ago with the incorporation of words from Chinese and Korean. Since the 16th century with increasing contact with Western nations, the language has undergone the influence of Portugese, Spanish, Danish, English and French traders, missionaries and scientists.

Though many foreign words retain their original identity and are recognized as such (pan, hoteru, hotto doggu), many have undergone some transformation and are not so readily recognizable. In this category we find words such as terebi (TV) bata (butter) and gareji (garage).

Some words were formed from the combination of Chinese characters such as electric speech for telephone (den-wa) or projected speech for movies (ei-ga).

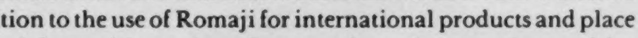
Certain aspects of Japanese are easy. All words end with a vowel or with the consonant sound "n." No two consonants appear together unless they are double (hotto doggu) or in combination with "n" such as *ringo*, the word for apple. The double consonant is the Romanized way of indicating a slight pause as in the word

kek-ko for magnificent.

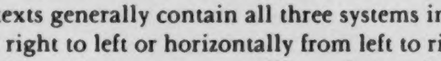
The basic sound structure of Japanese can be written in 48 characters, all of which incorporate the sounds a,i,u,e and o. Only the consonant "n" can stand alone, the others being bound to the vowels just mentioned. The l sound is non-existent in Japanese and is generally transliterated by the romanized r. The words follow a vowel/consonant/vowel order such as is noted in the many examples throughout this section. Although the sound u exists, when used in combination with a consonant, it is often not heard and serves as a convenient vowel to use when transliterating an English word that ends with a consonant such as the words *biru* (beer) or *aisu kurimu* (ice cream). This explains why the celebrated dish suki yaki is pronounced *ski yaki* in Japanese. The word for ball pen, transliterated as *boru pen*, illustrates the changes in the l and the u. One can readily understand the humor in the expression "rots of ruck" or in the story of the Japanese airline agent who wished his American client "a good fright."

Since Japanese students learn foreign languages, the Roman alphabet is studied, and the words formed by these letters are known as Romaji. Many international firms such as Sony, Toyota, Seiko etc. are written in Romaji in Japan as well as throughout the world. Furthermore, Japanese post office employees are trained to read Roman letters and thus accomodate mail to and from Western correspondents. In addition to the use of Romaji for international products and place names in some of Japan's large cities and tourist attractions, there are three writing systems; these include Chinese idiographs known as Kanjii, Hirigana, a syllabary of 48 characters and Katakana, another 48 character syllabary for the many words of foreign origin. Japanese texts generally contain all three systems intermingled, read either vertically from right to left or horizontally from left to right as with Romanized texts.

The Chinese ideograms are readily understood by both the Chinese and the Japanese although the pronunciation is different from one country to the other. Chinese is a tone language whereas Japanese is not. By government decree, 1,850 characters are considered essential for daily use and are found most often in newspapers and magazines. Sixth grade children are expected to have mastered 881 of the Kanjii. Of great importance is that many of the Kanjii have two separate meanings and pronunciations, depending on context. One set of meanings is the old sino-Japanese reading known as on-yomi and the other, the native Japanese reading known as kun-yomi. The sign 中 pronounced as *chu* is used in the word *Chinese* or can be pronounced *naka* as in the word *middle* or *within*. The ideographs, imported some 2,000 years ago had been originally developed 1,000 years earlier and evolved from primitive pictographs. The word mountain developed into an ideograph as follows:



Child developed in the following manner:



The next stage of development was Hiragana, the 48 character phonetic syllabary mentioned above. It was developed in the 8th century as a cursive form of Chinese characters. It can be learned in a relatively short period of time and will account for all sound combinations in Japanese. If Kanjii are the "brick" words to include nouns, adjectives and verbal stems, then Hiragana are used as verb endings, particles, proper and personal nouns and conjunctions. In train stations, Hiragana are often written next to Kanjii to facilitate comprehension when the former are not understood.

Hiragana was originally used as a writing system for women since educated men used the more cultured Kanjii, but through the ages, this has changed, especially since the year 905 A.D. when the Imperial Court published an anthology of poems in Hiragana.

The 48 characters syllabary consisting of the total range of phonetic sounds in Japanese includes the following:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
a	ka	sa	ta	na	ha	ma	ya	ra	wa	n
i	ki	shi	chi	ni	hi	mi		ri	wi	
u	ku	su	tsu	nu	hu	mu	yu	ru		
e	ke	se	te	ne	he	me		re	we	
o	ko	so	to	no	ho	mo	yo	ro	wo	

A number of voiced consonants such as those in columns 2, 3 and 4 are voiced by the addition of *dakutens* (") to the characters. For instance, the symbol く for ku would be pronounced gu when written く". Column 6 sounds are pronounced ba,bi,bu,be, bo with dakutens and pa,pi,pu,pe,po with the addition of tiny circles known as handakutens. へ = he, べ= be, ぺ=pe.

The Katakana, similar in function to the Hiragana, is used primarily for foreign words and names. The characters are angular, squarish and stiff and are to be found on neon signs, advertisements, international time tables, menus, etc. The one great advantage of this easily learned alphabet is that words written are readily understood by Westerners. One does not have to be able to learn Japanese vocabulary in order to understand curry rice, ice tea, hotel or Los Angeles; the meaning is immediately understood since the words are transliterated Western terms.

A matter of great importance in Japanese is that of particles. A few include the use of *wa* for topics, *ni* for location, *è* for destination, *o* for use with the direct object, *de* to translate "by means of" and *no* for possession or to link two nouns together. The following sentences illustrate the foregoing.

(1) wa: Topic
Watashi*wa* John des.
I am John.
(I John am.)

(2) ni: Location
Boston ni sundei imas.
I live in Boston.
(Boston in I live.)

(3) è: Destination
Boston è ikimas.
I go (or, will go) to Boston.
(Boston to I will go)

(4) *o:* for use with direct objects
Hanbaga o tabemas.
I eat hamburgers.
(Hamburgers I eat)

(5) *de:* by means of
Kuruma *de* ikimas.
I'll go by car.
(Car by I'll go.)

(6) *no:* possession or linking two nouns
Watashi*no* heya wa ooki des.
My room is big.
(My room big is)
or. . .
Watashi*no* tonari*no* heyawa ooki des.
My neighbor's room is big.
(My neighbor's room big is.)

In Japanese as in Spanish, Italian and other languages, it is not necessary to use the subject pronoun if it is readily understood. Of even greater interest is that one does not need to worry about such distinctions as singular/plural or masculine/feminine. The sentence "Toshokan ni honga arimas" can have any of the following meanings:

(1) There's a book in the library.
(2) There are books in the library.
(3) There's a book in the libraries.
(4) There are books in the libraries.

And *tomago* can either be an egg or a dozen of them. The context clarifies the meaning. Adjectives standing alone have no comparative degree and one verb form is used for all persons. *Tabemas* can mean *I eat, they eat,* etc.

The Japanese language, although standardized, does have many variations depending on the sex, age, and status of the speaker with relation to the listener. Women, men and children use many different words to express the same concept. There are also regional variations that tend to vary somewhat.

The Japanese language is very adaptable. It incorporates many foreign words as one finds many aspects of Western culture in the Orient. There are so many English words used in Japanese that the word Janglish has been coined much the same way that the word Franglais exists to refer to the countless English words used in French. The reverse is true also. As more and more elements of Japanese culture are to be found in the West, we find increasing numbers of Japanese words in our own daily lives. The most popular words relate to the martial arts and to food and food related items.

Japanese pronunciation is fairly easy perhaps because every consonant except "n" ends with a vowel. As languages tend to simplify, one wonders if Japanese too is not becoming a simpler language to learn. As Peter Temm replies in the last statement of his booklet entitled "The Japanese Language," *Ze ansa aimu afuredo izu no.*

AN INTENSIVE COURSE

Those going to Japan to travel, study, or conduct business might well consider learning some fundamentals of the Japanese language. Beyond the pleasure of being able to communicate in a difficult language, they will find the Japanese most appreciative of any attempts by foreign visitors to speak their language.

How then does one set about the task of learning a language rated level 4 (most difficult) by the Foreign Service Institute? Within a period of several hours, one can learn enough vocabulary and grammar to be understood. Speaking Japanese is not terribly difficult; understanding the spoken language, however, requires a considerable amount of exposure and practice. The Romance or Germanic clues that enable speakers of Indo-European languages to get a vague idea of conversations in other languages of the same family are not present in conversational Japanese. Nonetheless, one has to start somewhere and some introductory instruction followed by a brief period of residence in Japan will certainly give the traveler an edge over those not speaking the language. In addition to learning some essential vocabulary and expressions, it is of great help to master the 48 syllable writing system Katakana used primarily for foreign words. Not only is Katakana useful for reading and understanding a great number of transliterated English vocabulary items but it serves as excellent written reinforcement for class oral work as well.

A beginning course for travelers might include the following:

> Nouns — family, members of family, classroom vocabulary, country and nationality, food, transportation, shopping, numbers, clothing; Verbs — do, drink, eat, talk, know, speak, understand.
>
> Verb forms would include the present (which is the same as the future), the past, and the imperative. Verbs at the elementary level are relatively easy to learn since they require neither a subject pronoun nor conjugated forms. Also recommended for inclusion in such a course is *there is/there are* which differs according to whether one is referring to animate or non-animate items.
>
> Sentence transformations should also be included — from declarative sentences to negative, interrogative, imperative, negative imperative; and adjectives —a few of those commonly used in everyday situations such as beautiful, delicious, expensive, difficult, interesting, good and bad; and locutions — greeting someone and taking leave, formal introduction, health, weather, meals, entering and leaving a home, telling time; and particles — *wa* used for topics, *ni* used for location, *è* used for destination, *o* used for direct objects.

KATAKANA

The writing system Katakana discussed earlier is particularly helpful to the beginning student of Japanese who will immediately be able to understand transliterated English to be found on neon signs, in hotels and most importantly, on menus. One should not forget, however, that the sound L is replaced by R (hence, hoteru = hotel, boru pen = ball pen, etc.)

HIRAGANA

Hiragana is another 48 syllable writing system. Like Katakana, it can be used to pronounce all the words in the Japanese language. Hiragana can be mastered in a relatively short period of time and is most useful in helping visitors understand geographical place names in railroad stations. Hiragana is also the major writing system for the beginning student since it is more convenient to work with 48 characters than with hundreds of Kanji. In a regular program of study, Kanji are introduced gradually after both the Hiragana and the Katakana have been learned and practiced.

CONCLUSIONS

As one would expect, the Japanese language is a very rich and important source of culture. In learning its vocabulary, one gets acquainted with many aspects of day to day life not readily familiar to inhabitants of the Western world. The combination of Japanese words and cultural referents and foreign words used in Japanese shows to what extent the Eastern and Western cultures coexist compatibly.

The preceding, of course, represents but a small portion of that which is needed to communicate with the Japanese, but it makes for an excellent beginning. Although all languages have their linguistic and cultural fascination, Japanese is of particular interest to the Westerner because it *is* so different from the languages generally offered in our schools. Perhaps the most interesting aspect of the Japanese language is the extent to which it incorporates the contemporary Western and the traditional Oriental cultures.

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Latin

Introduction

LATIN: A COURSE IN CLASSICAL STUDIES

Latin! The word conjures up not only a hardy and resilient ancient language whose word roots, prefixes, and suffixes we recognize in contemporary Western tongues. "Latin" also brings to mind an entire course of classical studies. In American education it has become a catchall subject. A typical Latin course may include not only the language and literature of ancient Rome, but also etymology; and the mythology, history, and culture of both Greece and Rome in classical times.

INTENSIVE LATIN CONCEPTUALIZED AS AN OVERVIEW OF CLASSICAL STUDIES

Today not as many people study Latin as was formerly the case. This situation is what one might expect with a more and more crowded curriculum in an increasingly complicated society. Yet, America and the West are strongly based on the classical tradition, which has been transmitted primarily through Latin. If people are to understand the origins of contemporary society, they must have a systematic introduction to classical knowledge, the kind of introduction which has been available in the traditional Latin course when it has included classical studies. How can this be provided in a society in which most people do not enroll in traditional Latin courses? Various strategies are needed. One such strategy is the Intensive Latin course, viewing Latin as classical studies. In such a course, instruction may consist of an overview of the various components of a traditional Latin course. Such an overview would include an introduction to the language and literature of ancient Rome, to etymology of English words derived from Latin, and to ancient Greco-Roman civilization. Afterwards, the learner, equipped with an understanding of the content of Latin/Classics, may pursue classical studies or reading in a systematic and informed way, according to individual inclinations and needs.

APPLICABILITY OF THE CONCEPT TO OTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGES

This concept may be applied to an intensive course in any foreign language, using Intensive Latin as an illustration of the overview approach. Every language course has a cultural component which may be expanded as necessary and taught, along with language and literature, as an introduction to area studies in a particular culture. There are various reasons for offering such courses, depending on the connections of various cultures with contemporary interests and needs.

WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM INTENSIVE LATIN?

Populations of learners not usually involved in Latin study would benefit from courses in Intensive Latin. Some examples are: teachers in related subject areas, such as other foreign languages, social studies, and English; educators in non-school settings, such as museums; children in elementary school; and adults learning for self-enrichment.

VARIOUS FORMATS

Intensive Latin may be taught in a two-or-three-day span, or once a week over a semester. It is a flexible concept. The essential point is that it provide an overview of what classical studies have to offer in a contemporary setting.

FOCUS OF THIS REPORT

The report will focus on background for the concept of Intensive Latin: a summary of the development and historical importance of Latin, and a discussion of the favorable reception of Latin/Classics in related areas of curriculum, with particular attention to social studies as an activity for teaching Roman material culture.

Latin: Development and Historical Importance

DEVELOPMENT OF LATIN

Latin was originally the dialect spoken in ancient Latium, the section of Italy where Rome is located. As Rome gradually gained power, during the last millennium B.C., Latin spread: first throughout the Italian peninsula, and then in areas outside Italy. Eventually a new form of Latin grew out of the original dialect. This was a literary form of the language, and was used by educated people. In the years of the late Roman republic and early empire (101 B.C. to A.D. 14), Cicero, Vergil, and other writers helped to bring literary Latin to its classical peak.

While the literary language was developing, the everyday Latin of uneducated people kept its own characteristic form. This form, the *lingua Romana* or "Roman language," finally supplanted literary Latin as a general spoken language. During the Middle Ages, *lingua Romana* acquired different sets of characteristics according to factors in various sections of the former Roman Empire where it was spoken. Thus, the Romance languages — French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, and Spanish — developed. The literary version of Latin, in the form of Medieval Latin, became an official church language, and the language of scholarship and law, first throughout Europe, and, in time, in the colonies of the New World.[1] Because of its importance in both religious and secular affairs, Latin was a major subject in schooling in Western nations until the twentieth century.[2]

THE MAIN BENEFIT OF LATIN STUDY TODAY

Because of its extensive influence, both geographically and historically, Latin offers unique opportunities for cultural enrichment. William Riley Parker in his widely circulated essay, "The Case for Latin," sums up Latin's singular benefit as follows: "Latin, . . . studied to the point of reasonable competence, . . . offers

. . . an educationally unique experience: a sense of our relevant past, cultural and linguistic."[3] The linguistic aspect of our past, of which Parker speaks, is, of course, the Latin background of more than fifty per cent of English words.

Foreign Language Content in Various Curricula

The concept of a unit or an intensive course may be interpreted in a variety of ways. One possibility is to view such a course as an opportunity for the instructor to display the contents of his/her field to those in related fields.

A foreign language has many possibilities for what Robert C. Lafayette in the *1980 Northeast Conference Reports* calls "external articulation."[4] This useful phrase refers to the relating or transferral of some of the content of a traditional foreign language course to contents in other subject areas. In a position paper, Lorraine Strasheim stresses the value of examining our subject matter for new emphases which connect with contemporary society.[5] Her concept of changing emphases in subject matter correlates with Lafayette's term. Some of the subject matter of foreign language dovetails with other foreign languages, in many cases with English, and always with social studies. As language educators, we need to stand back from the particular language aspect of our subject matter and look at these other aspects. We need to be aware of changes in emphases in connected curriculum areas: the language arts and the social studies. For example, current trends in language arts are the push for basic skills and an "issues" or theme approach in the teaching of literature. In social studies there is a groundswell of interest in material culture. If we keep abreast of such trends in subject matter to which ours is related, we will then be in a position to use this awareness in our own teaching, and to share our subject matter, in unit or intensive form, with those in related subject areas.

CURRICULUM AREAS RELATED TO LATIN

Parker implies that only when Latin is "studied to the point of reasonable competence," does it provide "a sense of our relevant past." This is no doubt true with respect to thoroughly understanding our linguistic past in Latin, that is, the Latin language content in English vocabulary. However, at a time like the present, when most people do not acquire a reasonable competency in Latin, we need to look at ways other than the traditional Latin course to convey a sense of our *cultural* past. An analysis of the contents of the Latin curriculum reveals several elements, both those related to language and those related to culture.

The typical Latin course is in reality a classical studies program. It contains some or all of the following elements:

Latin language
Latin origins of words in Romance languages
Latin origins of English words
Roman literature
Classical mythology

Roman history
Geography and history of the Greco-Roman world

Only the first element is strictly "Latin" and must be taught by a trained Latin specialist.[6] A unit of study or intensive course in any of the six other areas, prepared by a Classics specialist, may be a useful component in other curriculum as follows:

Classical Study	**Related Curriculum Area**
Latin origins, words in Romance languages	French, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, (Romanian)
Latin origins of English words Roman literature in translation Classical mythology	English
Roman history Geography and civilization of the Greco-Roman world	Social studies

WELCOMING OF CLASSICAL COMPONENTS IN RELATED CURRICULUM

Recent developments in the field of Classics education confirm this view and indicate that teachers of related subject matter welcome classical components into curriculum.

Some developments are:

(1) The National Endowment for the Humanities has awarded to the School District of Philadelphia two grants (1979, 1980) to fund a project called Language Arts through Latin. Teachers of English and language arts in intermediate and secondary grades study in special Classics courses at Temple University and Millersville State College. Sixty are enrolled at one time. After the course work is over, teachers incorporate Latin into their language arts programs, using locally developed instructional materials. Rudolph Masciantonio, Assistant Director of Foreign Language Education, School District of Philadelphia, is director of the project.[7]

(2) At a 1981 social studies meeting twenty-three specialists in social studies and social studies education, from six states and Canada, attended a meeting to organize a Special Interest Group for Classical Civilization in Middle School Social Studies, which, as organizer, I presently chair.

Research indicates that teachers of other subject matter welcome classical material when related to their curriculum. Studies conducted in connection with innovative Latin programs in Washington, D.C., Philadelphia, Los Angeles, and Massachusetts show that teachers of non-classical subjects accept classical subject matter as an existing or projected part of their own curriculum areas.

Washington, D.C.

Judith LeBovit in a useful handbook about innovative programs quotes from tributes of Washington, D.C. elementary school teachers whose pupils were studying Latin with special Latin instructors. Teachers stress the applicability of the Latin program to other language study and to social studies, the cultural enrichment it provides, and the success of lower-achieving pupils.[8]

Philadelphia

In Philadelphia over 14,000 elementary school pupils now study Latin as a means of extending English vocabulary and reading skills. Rudolph Masciantonio, director of this thriving program, gives evidence in his doctoral dissertation that regular faculty members in the schools where Latin is taught by special instructors are "highly supportive" of the program.[9]

Los Angeles

The Los Angeles elementary school Latin program, begun in 1975, differs from those above in that it employs not Latin specialists but regular classroom teachers in Latin instruction. Inservice training is provided. A recent report states an advantage of this: "Consequently, the regular classroom teacher is able to extend the vocabulary expansion information of the program into other subject areas of the curriculum, such as mathematics, science, social science, and the arts."[10]

Massachusetts

Surveys which I have made indicate support of classical subject matter by teachers who are not Classics specialists. In 1972 a survey of English teachers in Boston junior high schools revealed strong support for classical subject matter in English curriculum. In 1977 surveys of English teachers in three junior high schools where Latin pilot programs were offered by the Department of Classics, University of Massachusetts, indicated their belief that there was a carry-over of benefits into the English class.[11]

Further survey work was done in 1980 in connection with the experimental transdisciplinary unit for the middle grades, *A Look at Latin*, published by the Division of Continuing Education, University of Massachusetts and introduced to groups of teachers in workshops operated, in connection with the School of Education, by the same division.[12] Answering an evaluation questionnaire, thirty-one respondents, sixteen of whom were not teachers of Latin but of other subject matter, produced the following result, in answer to the question, "In which of the following learning situations do you think these materials would be most effective?" (Some checked more than one answer.)

(a) Enrichment unit, high school Latin (3)
(b) Enrichment unit, middle school Latin (12)
(c) Culture unit, middle school, in the following subject area:
  1. Social studies (11) 2. Language arts (6)
(d) Other (2 — introduction to FL; unit for gifted children)

In addition to the above evidence of interest in Classics material for other subject areas is the following fact: twenty-two of thirty-eight teachers who enrolled in one-day workshops to learn about *A Look at Latin* in 1977, 1978, and 1979 were not Latin teachers, but teachers of French, Spanish, English, reading and social studies, or general classroom teachers on the elementary level.

Articles about innovative Latin programs appearing in general education periodicals reinforce evidence that there is an interest in this subject matter on the part of educators in general.[13]

Intersection of Social Studies with Foreign Language

A "Statement on Essentials of the Social Studies" appears in a 1981 issue of *Social Education*, the official publication of the National Council on the Social Studies. Among the seven areas of knowledge stressed are four which have obvious overlaps with language fields: "history and culture of our nation and the world;" "geography — physical, political, cultural, and economic;" "social institutions — the individual, the group, the community, and the society;" and "world-wide relationships of all sorts between and among nations, races, cultures and institutions".[14]

The educational philosophy of John Dewey provides a conceptual framework for these overlaps between social studies and language. In a chapter of *The School and Society* called "The Aim of History in Elementary Education" he deals with issues which touch upon the teaching of a particular language and culture. Social life, he says, has commonalities in all times and places. Time and place are not the main things; what count are the common forces in human life. Any history should be taught as "indirect sociology," a study centering on the processes by which society organizes itself and progresses.[15] What should be explored in this study of history as sociology are the motives of people which change society. Economic and industrial history as subject matter stem directly from this exploration of motives, that is, economics and the need to live and to enrich one's life, which are the main moving forces in human life.

In *Democracy and Education*, Dewey speaks of the interrelationship of history and geography. In the chapter "The Significance of Geography and History" Dewey points out how these subjects inform human beings of the time and space connections of their lives. They are, he claims, the "information subjects *par excellence* of the schools," but lose significance when one is taught in isolation from the other.[16] Nature is not merely a stage setting, but rather a medium with and in which man relates, in his social setting. Geography and history are the interrelated studies of man and the earth.

Language specialists will see the connections with language here. Language is a phenomenon which all peoples of past and present have in common. It is one of the primary means by which society organizes itself. Economic and industrial history are in great part the result of language transactions. One way in which man has related with the earth is by using language to name everything on it.

MATERIAL CULTURE IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The "new social studies" of the nineteen-sixties promoted an interest in material culture. The well-known unit, *Man: A Course of Study*, developed by a team led by Jerome Bruner, puts great emphasis on material culture as it leads students to look for answers to the questions: "What is human about human beings?", "How did they get that way?", and "How can they be made more so?"[17]

At social studies meetings field trips with instructional ideas are offered to teachers, centering on such themes as transportation, housing and American archaeology. Popular with social studies teachers are such enterprises as Old Sturbridge Village and the industrial history displays in Lowell, both in Massachusetts, and the "living history" opportunities in Norlands at Livermore Falls in Maine, where among acres of farmland a nineteenth-century farm and a one-room school house are used to recreate Maine's rural heritage for students and interested persons of all ages.

ROMAN MATERIAL CULTURE IN AN EXPERIMENTAL ACTIVITY FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

"Lana" ("Wool") is an example of the use of Roman material culture as an instructional medium. This activity, recommended for use in the middle grades but adaptable for any level, utilizes a method first used in "Triumphus," an activity included in *A Look at Latin.* "Triumphus," a recreation of a Roman triumph parade, was demonstrated with videotape at the 1977 Northeast Conference. The method is applicable to many areas of Roman life. Illustrations provided for both activities include copies of ancient Roman scenes of the activities as they took place in ancient times. For example, reliefs in the Forum of Nerva show people engaged in the spinning process which is the subject of "Lana."

"Lana" consists of five steps, the last of which is the unrehearsed recreation, with some Latin language (taught phonetically), of group activity centering around the spinning of the thread of *lana*, "wool." The five steps are:

(1) The teacher provides general information about the steps involved in making wool in Roman times, along with some interesting facts; for example, slaves' dark clothing was often made of wool from dark-fleeced sheep.

(2) Students choose roles which they will take in final activity (shepherds, sheep, or spinning workers).

(3) Each student chooses a word which goes with the role he/she has chosen: for example, a spinning worker might choose to be a *lanipendia* (lah-nee-*pen*-dee-ah), the head servant who weighs out the wool for spinners; or simply one of the spinners, in which case he/she might choose any one of several objects, for example *fusus* (*foo*-sus), a spindle. All the words are given in Latin with their phonetic spelling, as indicated here, and explanations about the people or things to which they refer. There need to be more words than students, so that there is plenty of opportunity for choice.

(4) Within an agreed-upon time period, each student is asked to do three things to enable him or her to take part in a group activity: practice saying his or her Latin word and know its meaning; either make a replica or drawing of the object signified by the word, or, if the word means a person or an animal, something to wear while playing the part; and finally, prepare a brief explanation of what the Latin word represents in the ancient Roman process acted out in the final activity. Simple, easily available materials are satisfactory for mak-

ing replicas, drawings, or costumes.

(5) All students take part in the final, unrehearsed classroom activity (shepherds, sheep, and spinning workers gathered in a workroom off the courtyard of a *villa rustica*, "country house," where some spinning is taking place.[18]

CONCLUSION

Intensive Latin may be viewed as an opportunity to demonstrate that "Latin is more than a language."[19] Such a course may provide a model for "external articulation," that is an illustration of ways in which the cultural content of Latin curriculum links with other subject matter such as social studies.

A teacher of any foreign language might profitably develop such a unit or course to offer to groups in his/her own locality. There are problems in devising an intensive course. For example, the developer must guard against diluting the subject matter while condensing it. What is taught must be authentic. It must be content which is valuable both in and of itself, and as a goad to future study. In spite of the difficulty of selecting such content, the intensive language course is worth developing and teaching. It is a useful way for teachers of language to reach out to new populations of learners, of all ages. These populations might profitably include teachers of related fields such as social studies. The profit will extend in two directions: toward teacher as well as student. Creating new formats such as the intensive language course, and developing new contacts with teachers in related fields, can help us find an enduring freshness in our subject matter.

Notes

1. The history of the influence of Latin in the United States is summarized by Grace Crawford in *Language and Culture: Heritage and Horizons, 1976 Northeast Conference* Reports (New York: The Conference, 1976), pp. 101-128. For a longer treatment, see the bibliography at the end of this report.

2. For a concise history of the teaching of classical languages from ancient to modern times, see *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3rd ed., s.v. "Classical Languages," by Norman J. DeWitt. For a survey of trends in teaching the Classics in the 1950s and 1960s, see the same reference work, 4th ed., s.v. "Classical Languages, by Carolyn E. Bock, John F. Latimer, and William M. Seaman. Both articles include bibliographies. The upcoming fifth edition (1982) of this encyclopedia will not contain a separate article on teaching the Classics. According to a personal communication from the editor, Harold E. Mitzel of Pennsylvania State University, Classics will be included in general articles on the teaching of foreign languages.

3. William Riley Parker, "The Case for Latin," *Foreign Language Teaching: Challenges to the Profession, 1965 Northeast Conference Reports* (New York: The Conference, 1965), pp. 7-21. This article was first printed in *PMLA* 74 (September 1964, Part 2), pp. 3-10. It remains, in my opinion, the best contemporary statement of the benefits of Latin study.

4. Robert C. Lafayette, "Toward an Articulated Curriculum," *Our Profession:*

Present Status and Future Directions, 1980 Northeast Conference Reports (New York: The Conference, 1980), pp. 72, 73.

5. Lorraine A. Strasheim, *Some Working Hypotheses for Latin Education in American Schools in the Next Decade: A Position Paper* (Oxford, Ohio: The American Classical League, n.d.)

6. However, a minimal amount of the Latin language (and, by extension, any language) can be taught by any teacher for whom phonetic spelling and translations are provided.

7. Judith Lynn Sebesta, ed., "American Classical League Methodology Committee: Latin and Basic Skills Newsletter," Vermillion, South Dakota, February 1981.

8. Judith B. LeBovit, *The Teaching of Latin in the Elementary School: A Handbook for Educators and Administrators* (Washington, D.C.: Latin for the Modern School Associates, 1973), pp. 163-169.

9. Rudolph Masciantonio, "A Description of Latin Programs, Grades 4-6, in Selected Public Schools in Philadelphia, Washington, D.C., and Los Angeles" (Ed. D. Dissertation, Temple University, 1977), p. 90.

10. "Language Transfer Project Update," *Classical Outlook* 57 (May-June 1980): 108.

11. I have compiled results of these surveys and will gladly make them available.

12. Marie Cleary, *A Look at Latin: A Transdisciplinary Unit* (Amherst: Division of Continuing Education Publications, University of Massachusetts, 1977).

13. For example, Nancy A. Mavrogenes, "The Effect of Latin Instruction on Language Arts Performance," *The Elementary School Journal* 77 (March 1977): 268-273 and "Latin in the Elementary School: A Help for Reading and Language Arts," *Phi Delta Kappan*, May 1979, pp. 675-677; and also Henrietta Wexler, "Roots — and the Latin Revival," *American Education:* June 1978, p. 37.

14. "Essentials of the Social Studies," *Social Education* 45 (March 1981): 163.

15. John Dewey, *The School and Society* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1899; reprint ed., *The Child and the Curriculum and The School and Society*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956), p. 151.

16. John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1916; reprint ed., New York: The Free Press, Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1966), p. 210.

17. Education Development Center, *Man: A Course of Study* (Cambridge: Education Development Center, 1970).

18. Another experimental activity geared for intensive learner participation, but based on classical mythology rather than on classical material culture, is "Stars in a War," which I designed in 1979 on commission for the George Walter Vincent Smith Museum, Springfield, Massachusetts. The activity is designed with middle school students in mind, but has been successfully used by older students. Although designed for use with statues of classical figures, it may be used with slides of the statues around which it centers. The problem it seeks to solve is this: how can museum visitors, particularly children, be interested in a refurbished collection of plaster casts of several great sculptures, both statues and reliefs, from antiquity and the Renaissance?

Six of the statues are of famous characters in the Trojan War. The activity "Stars in a War" focuses on these six statues, the Trojan war roles of the characters they portray (Zeus, Ares, Venus, Mercury, Minerva, and Laocoon and his sons). Two people are needed to do the activity, which is now in use in the museum's classical cast room. At the site of each statue, one person plays a museum visitor who asks questions, the other person personifies the statue who answers these questions. The six skits give a broad look at the story of the Trojan War.

19. For this phrase I am indebted to Priscilla Quirk, participant in a 1977 *A Look at Latin* workshop at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

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Portuguese

Portuguese is a Romance language; therefore, it is derived from Latin. Contrary to the belief of some, Portuguese is not a dialect of Spanish. Portuguese and Spanish do share many similarities which are a result of their common origin of derivation and their shared location on the Iberian Peninsula. There are, however, many differences between the two languages. Knowledge of Spanish can be both an asset and a disadvantage for those who go on to study Portuguese. Although knowledge of Spanish can provide frequent and unwanted intrusions, it can also give students of Portuguese considerable insight into the new language.

Of all the Romance languages, Portuguese is second only to French in the complexity of its phonology. Portuguese places a great deal of importance on the functions of stress in the pronunciation of its vowels. The value of accents in Portuguese is double — on the one hand, as in Spanish, they mark the greater intensity with which a syllable is pronounced, while on the other hand, they signal, as in French, the opening or closing of those vowels over which they are used. The Portuguese language contains many diphthongs, nasal vowels, and palatized consonants. Nasal diphthongs constitute one of the most difficult aspects of Portuguese phonetics for the beginning student of the language. Those hearing Portuguese for the first time often come to the conclusion that it sounds almost "Slavic."

Portuguese is today among the world's ten most widely spoken languages. It has more native speakers than French, Italian, or German. After Spanish, Portuguese is the Romance language with the largest number of speakers. This is sometimes difficult for people to comprehend, especially for those who believe that the Portuguese language is confined to its birthplace, that small nation in southwestern Europe called Portugal.

Portuguese is today spoken by some 150 million people around the world. It is the official language of Portugal, the Azores, Madeira, Brazil, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde, São Tomé and Principe, Mozambique, Angola, Macau, and Timor. The location of these countries and the wealth of their natural resources make the Portuguese-speaking world one of great political, economic, cultural, and social importance.

Brazil — covering half of South America — has more than 120 million inhabitants which makes it the largest Portuguese-speaking country in the world. Portugal, its former territories in Africa and Asia, as well as the large number of Portuguese immigrants in other parts of the world, account for the remaining 50 million. Extensive immigration makes Portuguese a major second language in

France and West Germany. The large Portuguese population in Paris (some ½ million resident workers) makes the French capital the third largest Portuguese city in Europe. Here in the United States there are over a million Portuguese.

How did the Portuguese-speaking world reach such proportions? We need only recall the pages of history to find the answer. In the 15th and 16th centuries, Portuguese seamanship and a spirit of adventure combined with geography to initiate a golden age of discovery and lay the foundations of the Portuguese empire. Portugal was responsible for discovering and exploring nearly two-thirds of the unknown world. Portugal was the leader of exploration; and Portuguese was the commercial language. Portugal enjoyed a place in the world similar to that enjoyed by the United States today.

Small nuclei of Portuguese can be found today in many foreign countries whose official language is not Portuguese. Traces of the Portuguese language and culture are engraved on the monuments, civilizations, traditions, and languages where the Portuguese presence has at some time been felt. The Portuguese people, their language, and culture are scattered around the world, in places that we would sometimes least expect.

The Portuguese were among the first arrivals in almost every country of the world, and the United States was no exception. Dr. Edmund B. Delabarre and Dr. Manuel Luciano da Silva theorize that Portuguese explorer Miguel Corte Real was the first European to set foot in what became the United States. The date 1511, Corte Real's name, the Portuguese coat of arms, and crosses of the Order of Christ are enscribed on Dighton Rock in Massachusetts. It is believed that Miguel, shipwrecked on his voyage of 1502, made his way to Assonet Neck, became chief of the Wamponoag tribe of Indians, and died in 1511.

Miguel Corte Real was not the only Portuguese to set foot on American soil in the 16th century. In 1542 the Portuguese navigator João Rodrigues Cabrilho, heading a Spanish armada, discovered California.

The first Portuguese resident in the United States was Matias de Sousa who settled in Maryland in 1634. It is believed that he may have been of Jewish ancestry. The first record number of Portuguese immigrating to the United States were Jews from Brazil who escaped persecution in that country and came to settle in New Amsterdam (New York) around 1654. A second group of Jews arrived a few years later and settled in Newport, Rhode Island. These Portuguese Jewish refugees were the founders of the American Jewish community.

During the great era of whaling in the 19th century, New England vessels bound for the Pacific built up their crews along the route. The Azores and Cape Verde Islands became favorite sources of seamen. Whaling became responsible for most of the Portuguese emigration. Portuguese fishermen helped make New Bedford, Massachusetts, the whaling capital of the world.

Portugal is a country of emigrants. Emigration may be viewed as a fundamental characteristic of Portuguese society. This emigration (leaving the home country) began with Portugal's golden age of exploration and discovery. Today economic reasons — discontentment with Portuguese living standards and a desire for a better life — explain the continued emigration movement.

There have been more than a million emigrants from the Portuguese homeland

and the islands of the Azores and Madeira in the last three decades. These emigrants have departed to France and West Germany in Europe, to Brazil and Venezuela in South America, and to Canada and the United States in North America. There was also a large emigration movement to Angola and Mozambique, but most of these people returned to Portugal when the latter gave these two former African colonies their independence.

Portuguese immigration to the United States is almost two centuries old while the Portuguese immigration movement to Canada began only a quarter of a century ago. The Portuguese, mostly from the Azores, began immigrating to Canada in 1953 when a group of eighteen men from the island of Sao Miguel left for that country on an experimental basis. In subsequent years, thousands settled in the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, and British Columbia. The city of Toronto is one of those that boasts of a large Portuguese population.

Of all the ethnic minority groups in the United States today, the Portuguese community occupies the 25th place. Since 1975 immigration from Portugal has exceeded that from any other country in Europe. Most of the Portuguese population is located in three areas: (1) southern New England which includes Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Connecticut; (2) California — the San Francisco Bay area, San Joaquin Valley, and southern California; and (3) Hawaii. The Portuguese comprise the largest single immigrant group in southeastern Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Many who live outside these areas may not even realize that the Portuguese ethnic minority exists in the United States. According to the 1970 census, Massachusetts had the largest Portuguese population with California in second place.

It is estimated that 90% of the Portuguese in the United States are from the Azores. There are also Portuguese from Madeira, Cape Verde, and the Continent. Some Portuguese from Angola and Mozambique arrived in the United States after the April 25th Revolution in 1975 which led to the independence of these two African colonies. Connecticut and New Jersey have a predominance of people from the Continent, whereas the other major Portuguese settlement areas seem to have a predominance of people from the Azores.

The Portuguese-speaking immigrants in the United States are good fishermen, and hard workers in factories, on farms, and in construction. The Portuguese have the ability to adapt to other cultures, languages, and climates. While entering the mainstream of American life, the Portuguese immigrant struggles to preserve his own cultural identity. He maintains his heritage through Portuguese language newspapers, magazines, radio and television stations, ethnic social clubs, ethnic Roman Catholic church parishes, and religious festivals. Most Portuguese communities are easily identified by small ethnic stores which sell canned goods, olive oil, wine, beer, and ceramics — all of which are imported from Portugal. The sweet aromas of Portuguese "papo secos" (rolls), "massa sovada" (sweet bread), and "malassadas" or "filhós" (fried dough with sugar) quickly identify a Portuguese bakery. Sausage companies or the ethnic grocery stores offer "linguiça," "chourica," and "morcelas." The ethnic restaurants offer the Portuguese seafood and meat specialties, rice dishes, and mouth-watering desserts.

An introductory course to the Portuguese language should include some background information on the language, where it is spoken in the world, and to what extent. Since the question of relevancy seems to play such an important part in our educational system and society today, it is also important to illustrate how and why knowledge of Portuguese may prove useful. The large number of Portuguese-speaking people scattered throughout the four corners of the world would seem to indicate a need for people in both American government and business who must be able to communicate effectively in Portuguese. Our relationship with Brazil, rich in many natural resources, including oil and coffee, warrants by itself our study of the Portuguese language. The United States and Canada both have significantly large Portuguese-speaking populations.

Most language courses today include — in addition to the pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar of the language — a study of the countries where the particular language is spoken, their people, culture, customs, history, etc. This can provide a valuable perspective which can later be put to use in international relationships, as well as in business and political negotiations.

An intensive language course can be quite a challenge for both the teacher and student. Both should share in developing the course content and goals. The course content and methodology should be student-oriented in order to meet the participants' needs, interests, and expectations. Why did the participant decide to study Portuguese? What does he/she hope to cover in the course? Is there any particular aspect of the language that the participant would like to have introduced or stressed in the course? The responses to these and other questions may vary, but they can provide an understanding of the students, what they expect or want from the course and the instructor.

An intensive course has its limitations, the most evident being the time element. It can, however, be an excellent means by which to expose those who have had the desire to study the language, but who have never really had the time or opportunity to do so. An intensive course can also provide prospective future students of the language with a preview or taste of that language and its culture.

An intensive course in Portuguese can be an introduction or review of the language (its phonology, lexicology, morphology, and syntax). It can also be an ideal situation in which to emphasize the audio-lingual or conversational approach to the language in simulated real-life situations.

An eight hour workshop, divided into four two-hour sessions would, in my opinion, be the best with an audio-lingual approach. The shorter sessions would provide optimum performance and concentration, as well as less fatigue and strain on both the instructor and the participants. The shorter sessions would give the participants a chance to digest smaller units of material.

When the audio-lingual or conversational aspect of the language is stressed, practical, basic everyday vocabulary should be highlighted. Simple dialogs with accompanying supplements can introduce the basic vocabulary and expressions. The supplements can present additional lexical items in sentences which are related to, and sometimes taken directly from the dialog. Listening and speaking are stressed first, followed by reading and writing.

Comprehension of the dialog and supplement material can be tested by oral question-answer periods which will include simple yes/no, or either/or type questions, and specific information questions which require the participants, in their responses, to supply vocabulary and constructions they have learned.

Pronunciation drills and exercises can evolve as the various sounds are heard in the oral presentation of the dialog and supplement. The sound-to-symbol approach can be used. Students will see the written words and symbols only after having first mastered the material orally.

Pattern drills can offer a means by which to practice grammatical structures and vocabulary that appear in the dialogs and supplements. Reading and writing exercises are based on the material covered thoroughly in class, both with and without the written text. Written exercises will test comprehension and grammar in a variety of different techniques.

The participants may have the opportunity to compose their own simulated dialogs or skits using the vocabulary and grammar that they acquire in the course. Guided conversations and role-playing can also be possibilities.

In an intensive language course, it is important that the participants profit as much as possible from their first and perhaps only exposure to the language, and that they acquire an understanding of both the language and cultures involved.

Although language acquisition should be the basic aim or goal of an intensive course in any language, culture should also be introduced. Language and culture can not be separated. A film, filmstrip, or slides will not only give the participants an insight into some of the countries, their people, and culture, but will also provide additional vocabulary. It can also provide perhaps a preview of what awaits them in those countries.

Our goal is to make the intensive Portuguese class sessions a truly profitable and enjoyable learning experience, in which the participants will come to learn all that they possibly can about the Portuguese people, their language, and culture.

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Russian

The study of Russian can present an exciting and interesting challenge to the serious language student, whether that be a high school student, a college student, or, of ever increasing importance now, a member of our new constituency — the lifelong learner. Although an Indo-European language, Russian is only distantly related to English, as compared with the more frequently taught languages. Structurally the language is more conservative and archaic than most living European languages, being more closely related to Latin, Greek and Lithuanian with respect to the distance it has travelled from the proto-Indo-European common ground, in both physical distance and in terms of the amount of change undergone by the language.

Russian is now the common language not only of the largest group of the ethnic Eastern Slavs, but also of a multi-national state with hundreds of other nationalities for whom Russian is a second language, with a total population over two and a half billion. Many of these other nationalities are still relatively primitive, some of them have only within the last century moved into the modern world. Although the first languages of these nationalities have not been neglected, it has been mainly through the medium of Russian that they have been brought into the "mainstream."

One of the most important intellectual issues in Russian history has been the argument about whether Russia belongs more to Asia or to Europe. While in most respects we must agree that Russia is closer to the European tradition than to Asian traditions, certain historical influences have resulted in a society which is very different from the Graeco-Roman tradition with which we are best acquainted. Particularly important in this development were the orientation of the Eastern Orthodox Church along anti-intellectual and non-humanitarian lines, and the incursions of the Tartars in the thirteenth century, which helped to cut Russia off from the humanistic trends of the Renaissance. Russia remained essentially isolated from much in the way of western influence until the seventeenth century. When they did arrive, the ideas of the Age of Reason penetrated only very shallowly a very small portion of society. That Marxism, a western ideology, should have found its first strong homeland in Russia seems paradoxical; but, as with most of the things it has borrowed, Russia borrowed Marxism in its own fashion, with the result that Marx would probably have difficulty recognizing his offspring.

The importance of having large numbers of citizens with an understanding of the Russian and his world must seem obvious to all but the most anti-intellectual. It is difficult to foresee a time when the Soviet Union will not be a power to deal with on our ever-shrinking globe. As one of the main elements providing continuity in Russian culture and at the same time one of its most revealing mirrors, the Russian language must be a matter of interest and concern to those interested in penetrating to any depth at all into this different culture, into the different thinking patterns of the Russian man and woman on the street as well as the great writers and thinkers of that culture. A study of Russian should be one of the main priorities in our striving toward global education and global understanding, so stressed in the 1979 Report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. It may, indeed, be more of interest to the lifelong learner who already has some awareness of these matters than to the student studying his/her first foreign language, who has yet to realize the humanizing and liberating experience that foreign language study can be.

It is precisely in this last aspect that I prefer to view the study of Russian. Language teachers should not need to be convinced that a well-taught language course can be the most liberating of all of the liberal arts. Every individual should have the opportunity of coming to understand well some language and culture outside of the Graeco-Roman tradition, which is so much a part of our background that we cannot really perceive its influence on us until we appreciate that other traditions may view objective reality and define "truth" in entirely different ways. While not as much of a liberating experience as studying some more "exotic," non-Indo-European language, Russian provides ample opportunities to challenge the student's assumptions about his own language and cultural perception of ourselves and others.

Unfortunately, Russian has earned a reputation as a very difficult language, an assumption with which one can take issue. Much of this reputation is due to inadequate (mostly perniciously bad) teaching materials and the fact that the profession has too often been dominated by native-speaking teachers who were inadequately prepared from the pedagogical point of view. Sometimes these teachers were even guilty of fostering the perception of Russian as a difficult language, since this apparently added to their own self-esteem as the bearers of a language too impossible for any poor American student to be expected to master.

But much depends on one's definition of difficulty. It is true that both the Foreign Service Institute and the Defense Language Institute consider Russian to be more difficult than the more commonly taught languages, requiring a longer time to acquire (and in the case of the Foreign Service Institute a lesser degree of proficiency is expected in Russian). But length of study is not necessarily the same as intrinsic difficulty of study.

How hard a language is Russian? One could argue that we have gone too far in allowing students to think that study of any subject should be all fun. Language study does require hard work, whatever the language, but if well taught the rewards more than repay the effort applied. Given suitable materials and a good teacher, Russian should be found to be no more difficult *per se* than any other language (one of the things a student learns while studying Russian is how very hard English is for foreigners to learn). It *does*, however, take longer to reach the same level of proficiency in Russian as in any of the more commonly taught languages.

An immediate perception of difficulty is caused by the non-Latin alphabet, but most of the letters do have the same Greek source as did our Latin alphabet. Structurally Russian is more archaic than the languages of Western Europe (at least in the nominal declension it will appear familiar to those who know Latin or Classical Greek). But morphology and syntax *are* finite and can be mastered in a reasonable period of time. And complexity in the nominal classes is more than compensated for by the elegant simplicity of the verb system (with only three tenses and an analytic subjunctive which requires no new forms); mastering the aspect system is more a matter of penetrating a conceptual system than learning forms. As compared with the languages of Western Europe, Russian can be properly described as more "regular," more rule-oriented. Analogy can play a greater role than in the learning of many languages; there is less that is truly "idiomatic" (defined as anomalous *within* the system, rather than as being simply "funny" or different than English). With respect to structure there is less that must be mastered by simple rote memory.

The sound system of Russian is relatively simple for an American student, probably simpler for most than that of French. While the orthography is not as phonetic as that of Spanish, it is far more so than that of French or English.

The most difficult part of learning Russian is learning the vocabulary, since the relationships which exist with English words are more distant and not as obvious. A good teacher can find ways, however, to minimize this difficulty. In order to aid the student in this task, it is vital that he be given the opportunity to hear and speak each new word and to use each new construction many times. Imaginative use of the language laboratory is of particular importance here, for if the recorded materials are well prepared and do not duplicate the printed materials available, the machine can do much to provide the student with this opportunity for massive listening and speaking practice. This aspect of the program is particularly important in an intensive course, where every minute of class time must be used to the utmost in the more creative uses of language and in those situations in which the teacher cannot be replaced effectively by a machine. The major text which forms the basic linguistic material of each lesson is accompanied by a taped series of questions and answers which the student never sees, but to which he must learn to respond on a purely listening-speaking basis. The questions are graded in difficulty, beginning with the simple "yes/no" and "or" questions to the more difficult specific questions, where the student must supply the new words and constructions in the answers. By this time, however, the student has already heard and used each new word and construction a number of times in a less demanding situation. When such an exercise is performed conscientiously in the laboratory, the student needs to spend very little additional study time in memorization of vocabulary.

Although Middlebury College has earned a reputation for excellence in the teaching of Russian, this cannot be ascribed to any strikingly original methodology or gadgetry. Our approach is openly eclectic, and to most would probably seem rather traditional. We do insist, however, on making students work hard, and most importantly, conscientiously. We know that students are willing to work hard if there is obvious progress and a definable result.

It is ironic that the Soviet Sputnik had such an influence on language teaching in this country, including the rise of audio-lingualism, while Russian teachers seem to have benefited less than those of other languages. Very few Russian teachers understood or wanted to understand the approach ("Russian is different from other languages and must be taught differently.") Those who tried it were too impatient for results and failed to see those positive values which the approach embodied, perceiving only the negative aspects.

Even in a fairly traditional or eclectic approach, certain elements of the audio-lingual methodology should form a vital part of one's methodology, and seem to be of particular importance when the program is an intensive one. One of the most important of these is the tenet that the ear and tongue must lead the eye, particularly at the beginning. Although Russians are very tolerant of poor pronunciation on the part of foreigners (unlike some others), imprecision at the level of phonemes and "intonemes" can cause serious cultural misunderstanding. "Gradual approximations" seems to be the rage at the present, but experience has shown that this has not worked in Russian and that only about one student in a thousand is capable of overcoming a faulty foundation, resulting in a "reading pronunciation," even in special phonetics courses later. Also, if you are going to study a foreign languge, it is simple courtesy to learn to speak it as well as you can. While we can expect few of our students to be mistaken for native speakers, we should inculcate in them a desire to speak as well as possible.

Although the majority of Russian teachers are apparently still teaching the alphabet first ("This is 'A,' this is 'B' "), it is most effective not to teach the alphabet explicity. The first contact hours of the course should be spent stressing the sound system (but this material should include complete meaningful sentences that can be used immediately for classroom communication), using a phonetic transcription with the Russian written symbols in immediate proximity. By the end of a set of exercises on a group of sounds, most students will be found to have gained a rather firm mastery of the printed symbols without even trying. (Some students are slower than others to pick up the new symbols, but this is probably related to the way in which they learned to read their native language more than to any inherent difficulty in Russian.)

Many effective types of oral drilling can also be taken from the audio-lingual approach, but the emphasis should be on the more demanding and less mechanical types of pattern drills (few simple substitution drills, many transformation drills). It is possible to make even pattern drills resemble actual communication as much as possible by carefully devising the models and frames. Heavy emphasis should be put on question-and-answer and statement-response drills. In addition, such drills can be used effectively to train sub-consciously such matters as word order, word usage, etc. For example, the Russian particles can very well be included in such drills, not as the point of the drill, but as a recurring element which is drilled simply by the necessity of using it in each response. The Russian particle *zhe* simply provides emphasis for the preceding word; there is no real equivalent in English (used after the word "where" we might say something like "Where in the world . . . ," but more likely its equivalent would be given just by tone voice. The ability to use such particles can go a long way toward making one's Russian sound like the real thing, not like a textbook. An example of a drill incorporating this particle is:

Teacher	Student
Here's her book.	Then where (in the world) is my book?
Here's her pencil.	
Here's her notebook.	
Here are her magazines.	

Together with elements from the audio-lingual approach, an effective methodology for an intensive course includes a healthy dose taken from cognitive learning theory. Whenever possible students should be helped to discover the new structures for themselves, but that stage should be followed by thorough explanations linguistically adequate to the level of study (recognizing at the same time that there is often a big difference between linguistic truth and pedagogical soundness).

Students have a very healthy curiosity which should be satisfied on the intellectual level, and which can play a very important role in establishing and maintaining motivation. While one should keep clearly in mind that the students are supposed to be learning the language and not about the language, great help and intellectual stimulation may be provided by generalizations about the structure of the language and how it differs from English. For example, after students have learned their "impersonal expressions" in Russian, they find it interesting to be shown the extent to which English is an egotistical language (with emphasis on "I" and on a responsible, active agent structure), while Russian is rather animistic and many times (more "logically" than English) prefers to remove responsibility from the person to the forces and powers that be in the world.

There is also much of value to be found in the communicative competence approach (though there are reasons for genuine concern about its unwieldiness without firm underpinnings in structure). Although an effective beginning course should provide ample room for all four skills, there should be heavy emphasis on Russian for communication in meaningful situations. (The lack of suitable materials at more advanced levels of study still presents real problems, however.) There seems to be a growing trend among Russian teachers to try to teach one skill only — reading. While it cannot be denied that many students who study Russian will never have an opportunity to use the spoken language, and there may be those for whom only the reading skill is important, this approach is short-sighted and tends to short-change the student. The fact is that a very high percentage of students in Russian today hope to use the spoken language, and many of them hope to go to one of the semester or summer programs in the Soviet Union. In almost all cases a single-skill approach will cripple them when they try to add the other, active skills later. Particularly in an intensive course it seems important to provide for ample opportunity to use the language in meaningful communication. As indicated above, this requires particular care in preparing language laboratory materials in order to make each contact hour as effective and creative a possible.

An effective methodology can also include something from the old grammar-translation method, which has been considered anathema for the last twenty years — translation from English into Russian even at the beginning level. Long experience has proved, however, that *when used properly* and carefully monitored by the teacher, such exercises can in fact be helpful in forcing the student *not* to translate word-for-word, but to translate ideas. It is important, of course, that the teacher repeat frequently the fact that translation is really impossible. It is also important that the English used be normal contemporary conversational English, not tampered with in order to help the student find the right equivalent. It is vital that this be the *culminating* written exercise of a unit. When used properly at the end of the lesson, this is the most demanding of all exercises and provides (for the written language) the best proof of the student's mastery of the materials stressed in the lesson.

Since the learning of new vocabulary is the most difficult part of Russian, it is very important to use word study helps and derivational indications whenever useful in the textbook and in the classroom. Again, the goal is not intellectual knowledge of etymology, but aid in helping students to find pegs to put the words on.

Actually, once an effective methodology and suitable class materials have been developed, there need not be a striking difference between intensive and non-intensive courses, except, of course in tempo. The fact that there is not as much time for assimilation and digestion of material between class sessions in an intensive program does influence the amount of material which can be mastered actively, but the fact that the student is concentrating on only one subject makes up for this lack. In any event, it is probable that the great majority of non-intensive language courses could be improved considerably by taking into consideration some of the principles outlined above.

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Contemporary Cultures: Issues and Answers

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La France Contemporaine

Au delà de l'enseignement de la langue et de la littérature françaises, il en existe un troisième, celui de la culture et de la civilisation. Il n'est que de feuilleter les nombreux ouvrages déjà publiés pour se rendre compte des multiples thèmes que leurs auteurs se plaisent à traiter: politique, vie sociale, éducation, vie artistique, corps constitués, économie, loisirs, religion, famille. Or à l'inverse de la langue et de la littérature aux normes et a la valeur esthétique relativement stables et universellement acceptées, l'étude de la civilisation révèle des courants, des progrès, une évolution, lesquels ne cessent de modifier parfois radicalement les "standarts" d'appréciation et de jugement. N'est-ce pas là le reflet de l'évolution du monde, de notre monde, fonction elle-même du développement de l'économie et de la vie sur les trois plans, personnel, familial, national et international.

Le début du XIXe siècle avait été l'aube de l'âge industriel; la Révolution française avait été le signal d'un nouveau brassement social qui avait eu pour conséquence l'accès de la bourgeoisie au pouvoir politique, economique et industriel. Il suffit de se rappeler la fameuse trilogie patronymique des Perrichon, Poirier et Prudhomme, types classiques du bourgeois satisfait, imbu de soi-même, de l'homme "à réserves", circonspect, prudent, parfois même soupçonneux de son entourage. L'invention de la machine à vapeur, la création des premières grandes sociétés de textiles et de charbonnages, le développement des transports ferroviaires avaient favorisé l'ascension sociale et politique de toute une société de chefs d'industrie et d'entreprise, d'ingénieurs, de commerçants dont la formation professionnelle et intellectuelle était assurée par un enseignement approprié, dispensé par un système scolaire et universitaire dont les bases avaient été établies pendant le règne de Napoléon. Et le monde d'alors enviait les modèles d'empire industriel et colonial qu'étaient l'Angleterre et la France et qu'allaient devenir les Etats-Unis. La première guerre mondiale avait ébranlé les assises de ces puissances sans pour autant les détruire et l'après-guerre, témoin d'une reconstruction, n'avait guère assisté à de profondes modifications dans les normes de la vie sociale, économique et politique. La constitution de 1875 présidait toujours aux destinées politiques et au fonctionnement des corps constitués. Le régime scolaire n'avait subi aucune transformation. L'autorité n'avait pas perdu son emprise: respect du chef civil ou militaire, valeur des diplômes, maintien des traditions. Du point de vue social, dès 1936, le régime du Front populaire avaient fait voter les premières lois accordant aux ouvriers une quinzaine de congés payés et un assouplissement des conditions de travail.

Parallèlement la cellule familiale demeurait intacte. L'autorité du père à laquelle s'ajoutait celle du maître d'école conservait ses droits. Les termes de concertation, de parité, demeuraient des ressources lexicales dépourvues de toute valeur réelle et pratique. En revanche, on pourrait dire qu'à la pyramide sociale et administrative du Moyen Age et de l'époque de la royauté en avait succédé une autre qui définissait droits et obligations de la base vers le sommet confirmant l'existence d'une sacro-sainte hiérarchie autant sur le plan familial que sur ceux de l'enseignement, de la politique, de l'administration sociale, religieuse et économique du pays.

Or que s'est-il passé après la deuxième guerre mondiale surtout depuis 1950? On a pu dire que le monde et les pays industriels avaient plus évolué en 25 ans (1950-1970/80) que dans la période de plus de 100 ans entre la Révolution française et la première guerre. A l'âge du charbon a succédé celui du pétrole, à l'origine de profonds changements dans la mode de vie, l'habillement, la nourriture, les découvertes scientifiques et les moyens de communication. Déjà conscients de l'épuisement de cette dernière source d'énergie, les pays industrialisés se tournent de plus en plus vers l'atome pour assurer leurs ressources energétiques de l'an 2000. Génétique et informatique figurent maintenant parmi les industries et la recherche de pointe. L'ordinateur et l'audio-visuel ont conquis les media et tous les aspects de la communication humaine, bouleversant à la fois les modes de pensée et de vie. A une société sagement hiérarchisée, consciente de son héritage national et respectueuse de ses traditions, tend à succéder une société dite de loisirs et de consommation où chacun devient plus averti de ses droits (non de ses devoirs), bouscule les normes familiales, sociales et politiques sur lesquelles était basée la société industrielle du XIXe siècle et du début du XXe siècle.

SOCIÉTÉ

Pays de tradition agricole, la France qui comptait encore 50% de ruraux au lendemain de la Seconde Guerre mondiale est entrée dans l'ère industrielle, provoquant une croissance accélérée des villes ce qui a profondément modifié l'aspect de la société française et les données fondamentales de la vie sociale. Pendant des décennies, les paysans ont vécu, repliés sur eux-mêmes, enfermés dans leurs traditions et leurs routines. L'opposition ville-campagne était nette. Aujourd'hui les ruraux quittent la ferme pour aller à la ville. Mais depuis une vingtaine d'années, à cet exode vers les grandes agglomérations correspond un reflux des citadins vers les campagnes à l'occasion des vacances et week-ends. Ce courant des personnes se double d'une circulation de plus en plus intense des marchandises et des idées dont témoignent la création de réseaux de distribution et la pénétration croissante des mass-média dans les coins les plus reculés du territoire français. A la ville comme à la campagne, une même technique s'impose sur laquelle se fondent l'adoption de nouvelles attitudes sociales, l'uniformisation des modes de vie et la disparition des anciens contrastes. Hameaux, bourgs et villages perdent leur influence au profit de la petite ville. L'échelle de la communauté rurale (aristocratie paysanne, gros propriétaires, fermiers, artisans et ouvriers agricoles) tend à se réduire en même temps qu'à la ville disparaît l'écart entre les groupes ou milieux sociaux-professionnels (cadres moyens, techniciens, administrateurs, professions libérales).

Les anciennes classes mais aussi les élites traditionnelles perdent leur influence.

A l'effacement du père de famille, au déclin des communautés locales, correspond aussi la disparition des notables (châtelain, curé, instituteur, notaire, bourgeois) qui ne jouent plus le rôle important qu'ils jouaient autrefois. De nouvelles élites issues directement des milieux cultivateurs, ouvriers, commerçants et artisanaux apparaissent aujourd'hui. Ce sont elles qui tendent à supplanter les traditionnels notables en même temps qu'elles prennent les emplois créés par la technique moderne.

On assiste donc à une diminution très sensible du nombre des ouvriers de la terre. N'a-t-on pas récemment proposé de supprimer un paysan français sur deux afin d'obtenir un meilleur rendement des fermes? Face aux 2.500.000 exploitations que comptait le pays en 1970 il ne devrait en rester que 250.000 en 1990! Cette mutation de la société française reflète une nouvelle structuration des activités économiques laquelle tend à enlever au secteur primaire (agriculture) la main d'oeuvre utilisée de plus en plus par les secteurs secondaire (industrie) et tertiaire (commerce, banque, administration). Pour beaucoup de travailleurs et d'employés français, cela se traduit par des changements de profession (le mineur devient maçon, l'ingénieur devient industriel ou chef d'entreprise) ou de catégorie sociale (l'ouvrier qualifié devient contremaître). Cette mobilité professionnelle, si nécessaire au recrutement et à la formation des nouvelles élites, s'accompagne d'une qualification de plus en plus élevée qui a pour resultat une progression régulière du niveau de vie et une très sensible amélioration des conditions de travail. Désormais, les Français boudant le statut social et l'échelle des valeurs qui caractéisaient les classes traditionnelles de la bourgeoisie et du prolétariat, adoptent les normes de vie des groupes socio-professionnels du pays fortement industrialisés. De ce fait ils confirment leur accès sinon à une société d'abondance ou de consommation du moins à une civilisation du bien-être et des loisirs qui tend à faire bénéficier de ses avantages une partie de plus en plus large de la population.

C'est ainsi qu'au cours des dernières années les professeurs, les ingénieurs, les cadres, les professions scientifiques et libérales ont vu leurs effectifs se développer de plus en plus rapidement. Cela permet de caractériser la société française moderne par un mouvement de promotion sociale et professionnelle et d'accession aux postes importants de direction et d'administration. On est allé jusqu'à proposer une sorte de "théorie des trois générations" nécessaires à l'accession d'un individu aux stades supérieurs de la société. Elle pourrait s'illustrer par l'exemple.: 1/ grand-père paysan, 2/ père instituteur ou facteur ou artisan, 3/ fils universitaire ou diplômé des Grandes Ecoles ou d'Instituts techniques.

JEUNESSE

Qui est donc ce jeune Français aux caractéristiques, à la tournure d'esprit, aux normes de vie si différentes de celles de ses parents ou de ses ancêtres du XIXe siècle? D'abord il est le produit du renouveau démographique du pays, de l'explosion du taux des naissances de l'après-guerre. Encore adolescent, il a été témoin passif des événements de 1968 avant de devenir ensuite un des bénéficiaires des réformes qu'avait provoquées cette mini-révolution de '68 dans le domaine de l'enseignement secondaire et supérieur. Aujourd'hui âgé moins de vingt ans, il compte parmi un tiers de la population française totale et participe au rajeunissement des habitants de l'hexagone. Le milieu familial où il est né jouit d'un des niveaux de vie les plus élevés du monde, à l'égal de celui des habitants des autres pays industrialisés d'Europe occidentale. Dès le plus tendre âge et sans peut-être en prendre nettement conscience, il a largement bénéficié d'un confort à peine connu de ses parents, il y a un quart de siècle. Celui-ci se traduisait par la présence dans le logement familial de toute une gamme d'appareils électro-ménagers et surtout audio-visuels parmi lesquels trônent en bonne place le téléviseur, la chaîne stéréo hi-fi et le transistor. D'oú l'irrésistible tentation d'ouvrir le poste pour "meubler" l'absence de dialogue avec parents et familiers ou couper court à toute discussion "oiseuse" ou désagréable. Des heures durant (parfois tout en faisant son travail scolaire!) il écoutera ses airs favoris ou restera figé devant le petit écran, oublieux des petits ou grands problèmes qui devraient l'agiter, le tracasser, lui et le monde dont il fait partie. Veut-il échapper à l'ambiance familiale? Doit-il se déplacer pour aller retrouver les copains? Vivant à l'âge du pétrole et de la société de consommation, il enfourchera son deux-roues motorisé lequel, il y a belle lurette, a remplacé le vélo qui faisait au même âge l'orgueil de son père. Que fait-il de ses moments de détente et de relaxe? De la lecture instructive: "Connais pas ou plus!" Les jeux de société? Qu'est-ce que cela veut dire? La pratique des sports? A laisser aux titulaires d'une licence ou encore aux professionnels qui, selon les media, y gagnent d'ailleurs largement leur vie. Que lui reste-t-il? La sortie en groupe, les "autres" ayant eux aussi leur machine, pour aller se nourrir les tympans d'un barrage de décibels assourdissant au disco local, à la surboum des amis ou se régaler les sens d'un de ces films à sensation projetés au cinéma voisin.

S'il refuse la discussion et le dialogue avec ses parents, l'amorce-t-il et la souhaite-t-il avec ses "pairs"? De l'un ou de l'autre sexe? Oui, sans doute, mais les "grands" sujets ne l'intéressent plus: la politique, c'est d'abord un jeu de combines et de pots-de-vin, de mensonges à l'échelle du gouvernement! La religion? C'est aussi souvent une attitude hypocrite, reflet d'une mentalité bourgeoise. Regardez d'ailleurs à quel point les églises sont vides. Et puis cette religion "n'arrange rien, ni personne", les souffrances du monde, les cataclysmes ne cessent pas pour autant. Et s'il existait un Dieu, permettrait-il les inégalités constatées tant au niveau familial que national et international? L'amitié sincère et valable? Est-elle toujours possible? Devant une philosophie aussi pessimiste, le "chacun pour soi" l'emporte désormais dans ce monde de la jouissance et de la consommation. En revanche pour sortie de l'anonymat et de la mortelle routine de la vie, notre jeune Français n'hésitera pas à dramatiser le plus léger incident affectant la vie morne de ses copains. Pourtant la simple idée de rendre service ne lui viendra guère à l'esprit. Chez lui, n'a-t-il pas l'example d'un père trop souvent aux prises avec les difficultés économiques et professionnelles quotidiennes pour s'intéresser à son fils et l'entretenir de ses propres difficultés. Lui a-t-il promis aide et conseils? Ces promesses restent lettre morte ce qui explique les relations tendues et peu communicatives à l'intérieur de la cellule familiale.

FAMILLE

L'absence de dialogue est en partie due aux transformations qu'a subies le "foyer familial français" au cours des vingt dernières années. Les actuelles conditions de vie et de travail rendent les parents moins disponibles en moyenne pour l'éducation des enfants en dépit de la diminution de la durée du travail. Dans les grandes villes, en particulier, les femmes sont nombreuses à travailler. Elles consacrent beaucoup moins de temps à leurs enfants que jadis. Une femme salariée dans la région parisienne est absente de chez elle au moins dix heures par jour et cinq jours par semaine. Elle travaille huit heures et il faut ajouter, à son temps de travail, une heure de transport et une heure de déjeuner. De retour chez elle, elle doit s'occuper du ménage et de la cuisine, et même les appareils électro-ménagers qu'elle utilise demandent du temps. L'aide ménagère se fait de plus en plus rare en raison de son coût et même si le mari participe aux travaux ménagers, plus que jadis, elle ne peut guère s'occuper vraiment des enfants. D'une façon plus générale, pour les hommes comme pour les femmes, les conditions de travail et de transport sont telles qu'ils n'ont guère de temps à consacrer à leurs enfants et à leurs études. A cela il faudrait ajouter la dissolution de la cellule familiale en raison de l'accroissement du nombre de divorces. Officiellement un couple sur cinq divorce. Enfin des transformations technologiques sans précédent par leur ampleur et la rapidité avec laquelle elles se répandent, modifient les voies normales d'accès à l'instruction, à la culture. S'il est un domaine où la science se donne le vertige, c'est bien celui de l'informatique et de l'électronique. Les progrès y déjouent toutes les prévisions. En trente ans, depuis la mise au point du transistor, nous avons brûlé de nombreuses étapes. Aujourd'hui l'ordinateur révolutionne toutes les techniques, la fabrication des produits et le marché de leur utilisation. Dans cet univers de percées scientifiques et où les technologies se modifient si vite, les jeunes sont volontiers sceptiques. Ils cherchent, se posent des questions sur l'utilisation raisonnable et réfléchie de ces découvertes récentes . . . mais ne trouvent pas. Leur temps de lecture et de réflexion diminue chaque jour davantage et à cela s'ajoute l'expansion illimitée des bandes dessinées qui mobilisent une part considérable de ce temps beaucoup plus limité qu'il y a cinquante ans.

SCOLARITÉ

Dans ces conditions, l'enseignement prend actuellement une très grande importance car les jeunes Français en dépendent beaucoup plus, contrairement aux apparences! La situation est bien différente de ce qu'elle était au XIXe siècle, époque où s'est mis en place un système national d'enseignement. Ce système servira de moule à toute une nouvelle société scolarisée, à des générations de jeunes pris dans l'étau d'un modèle socio-culturel en train de se généraliser, celui d'un ordre rigoureux (à la fois pour le corps et l'esprit) au service de l'efficacité et du profit et que la bourgeoisie n'hésitera pas à s'appliquer à elle-même. Or une apparente discordance va apparaître entre cette mise au pas des corps et des personnalités et le contenu des études qui donnaient une culture humaniste désintéressée tournant le dos au monde capitaliste et industriel. En réalité il faut se rappeler que le but avoué de l'enseignement des lycées et des collèges n'était pas de former des hommes d'action efficaces prêts à affronter un monde nouveau, mais de founir à une partie choisie de la jeunesse les codes de pensée, les mots de passe culturels des élites et surtout l'art de maîtriser le langage, principal instrument de la promotion sociale.

L'actuel système éducatif français conserve la marque de sa formation historique, mais, après une longue stabilité, a connu surtout depuis 1959 et 1968 une série de transformations fondamentales. De la Révolution française à la IIIe République, l'organisation scolaire a peu évolué, sauf au niveau de l'enseignement primaire. Le premier Empire avait posé les bases d'une organisation en trois niveaux : primaire, secondaire (lycées et collèges) et supérieur (universités). C'est sous la IIIe République que l'enseignement primaire est devenu un véritable service public, gratuit, laïc et obligatoire alors de 6 à 13 ans. Par la suite, une loi de 1919 a fait de l'enseignement technique une responsabilité nationale. Depuis la deuxième guerre mondiale s'est produit un exceptionnel mouvement de croissance des effectifs, sous l'effet de la poussée démographique qui contrastait avec la période de stagnation de l'avant guerre. Cette vague a progressivement atteint les différents niveaux de l'enseignement comme en témoignent les statistiques suivantes :

Niveau	**1950**	**1958**	**1973**
primaire	4.137.000	5.792.000	4.756.000
secondaire	545.000	1.717.000	4.661.000
supérieur	139.000	222.000	770.000

Cette croissance a imposé un effort considérable en construction et en équipement. Le budget de l'éducation est devenu le premier budget de l'Etat. La moitié des locaux scolaires du secondaire et du supérieur ont été construits depuis cette date. Les innovations ont été également nécessaires dans la politique de l'éducation. Parmi celles-ci figurent l'extension de la scolarité obligatoire jusqu'à 16 ans et la diversification des programmes d'enseignement secondaire sanctionnés désormais par toute une gamme de baccalauréats épousant un éventail de disciplines allant de la philosophie et des lettres à l'économie et aux sciences sociales en passant par la technique, l'industrie, la comptabilité et l'informatique.

Cet assouplissement du régime des études secondaires, d'après de récents sondages d'opinion, a eu certes des résultats bénéfiques : grâce à un enseignement technique à part entière, l'école, les milieux professionnels et les unités économiques de production se sont trouvés associés plus étroitement. De plus, les jeunes diplômés des lycées et colléges se sont vus offrir de nombreux débouchés et ces mêmes débouchés leur ont donné accès à des métiers mieux rémunérés. Malheureusement aucune réforme, si positive soit-elle, ne peut pleinement réussir que dans un climat politique et économique favorable.

Or, de quelque côté du monde que l'on porte ses regards, la conjoncture nationale et internationale n'est guère réjouissante. Un profond pessimisme s'est emparé des esprits et tend à déteindre sur la mentalité des lycéens et collégiens parmi lesquels beaucoup demeurent insatisfaits. Leur opinion pourrait se résumer dans la récente définition de l'école secondaire qu'a donnée l'un d'entre eux : "Le lycée est une structure molle et floue, une gigantesque salle des pas perdus où chacun poireaute sur sa banquette, en contemplant la pendule d'un oeil terne, en attendant qu'il se passe quelque chose."

En réalité la plupart des lycéens ne savent vraiment pas ce qu'ils vont faire AVEC et APRES le "bac". Ils ne s'intéressent pas non plus beaucoup à leurs cours. Ils ne prennent plus le temps de lire. Ils ne semblent plus s'enthousiasmer pour grand-chose. Devant un tel état d'esprit quel peut être le rôle de l'université dans la formation des futurs cadres, chefs d'industrie et directeurs administratifs?

UNIVERSITÉS

Les seize universités de l'hexagone telles qu'elles existaient il y a encore deux décennies, ne répondaient plus aux besoins du XXe siècle. Elles avaient des programmes trop cloisonnés, restaient étroitement dépendantes de Paris, dispensaient un enseignement à la fois théorique et général, et n'avaient pas l'espace nécessaire pour accueillir les milliers d'étudiants des générations d'après-guerre. La loi d'orientation de l'Enseignement supérieur du 7 novembre 1968 a essayé de remédier à cette situation en créant d'abord onze nouveaux centres d'études universitaires. Puis elle a redéfini le rôle de l'université lequel consiste à dispenser un enseignement plus complet, dans certains cas même technique, et de préparer les étudiants à la recherche tout en favorisant l'épanouissement de leur personnalité. Désormais les facultés traditionnelles cèdent de plus en plus la place aux Unités d'Enseignement et de Recherches (UER) groupant de nombreuses disciplines, et aux Instituts Universitaires de Technologie (IUT) réservés aux futurs techniciens. En ce qui concerne l'enseignement proprement dit, il comporte deux cycles, le premier de formation générale menant au diplôme universitaire d'études générales et à la licence, et le deuxième pour les candidats à l'agrégation et au doctorat. Le but de cet enseignement est de former les professeurs et les cadres moyens dont le pays a besoin. Les cadres supérieurs, eux, sortent des Grandes Ecoles telles que l'Ecole Normale Supérieure (Enseignement), l'Ecole des Mines (Génie civil, recherche), l'Ecole polytechnique (armée, industrie), l'Ecole Nationale d'Administration (Administration) et plus récemment les Ecoles supérieurs de Commerce (Commerce, industrie).

Nantis du fameux diplôme universitaire et désormais intégrés dans la trame sociétés? Un point est acquis: ils se détournent du modèle patriarcal et autoritaire. L'objectif existentiel est désormais l'épanouissement personnel. Ce qui compte maintenent dans la vie, c'est de "s'épanouir" dans le travail, si celui-ci le permet,

L'objectif existentiel est désormais l'épanouissement personnel. Ce qui compte maintenent dans la vie, c'est de "s'ópancuir" dans le travail, si celui-ci le permet,

sinon ailleurs, dans les voyages, la culture, la vie privée. L'ambition cède le pas à la détente. Ce qu'on attend du métier, c'est d'occuper dans la société une position reconnue et gratifiante. La famille n'est donc plus le lieu de contrainte, de dressage qu'elle était. Les valeurs traditionnelles ne dominent plus la personnalité des enfants. Bien au contraire, ce sont les valeurs personnalistes, voire égoïstes des jeunes générations qui, pour ainsi dire par osmose, viennent à contre-courant imprégner la mentalité des parents. En définitive, tous demeurent malgré tout optimistes, croient au progrès, garantie d'une vie plus agréable et ont l'intention de faire le plus grand cas de leur vie personnelle. Sur cette toile de fond plutôt encourageante quel rôle joue la politique? Quel intérêt porte-t-on aux Institutions, à leur maintien, à leur sauvegarde? Est-on pleinement averti des rouages de l'Administration, de leur fonctionnement, de leur interdépendance?

LA POLITIQUE ET SES ROUAGES

1968 et ses remous sont loin! De nos jours, les jeunes électeurs ne semblent plus se passionner de politique. Du moins il n'y a plus de graffiti ni de slogans sur les murs. Les fameux "isme" (Castrisme/Maoïsme etc . . .) ne font plus recette et ont du mal à recruter des disciples. La "destabilisation" du monde actuel en serait-elle la cause principale? D'autre part, la révélation de scandales au sein des assemblées parlementaires et des ministères n'est-elle pas de nature à dépiter les partisans les plus mordus de la démocratie?

L'histoire politique française est, chacun le sait, extrêmement mouvementée. Les modifications constitutionnelles successives manifestent la recherche d'un équilibre entre l'omnipotence des assemblées parlementaires déchirées et impuissantes et les dangers de la concentration excessive du pouvoir entre les mains d'un seul. "Ce qu'il nous faut, c'est un gouvernement faible", disait en 1911 Jules Ferry qui pensait aux coups d'état contre la République. Mais on se rappelle à quels désordres a mené la faiblesse du pouvoir exécutif depuis la 1ère République proclamée en 1792 jusqu'à la quatrième qui a pris fin en 1958. C'est en effet cette année-là qu'est née la Vème République dont la Constitution garantit la stabilité du gouvernement. Par sa conception, elle se rapproche du régime présidentiel et est très semblable à celle des Etats-Unis. Ainsi le président de la République, véritable chef de l'Etat, élu pour sept ans au suffrage universel, exerce-t-il le pouvoir exécutif avec le concours de ses ministres. Quant au pouvoir législatif, il revient au Parlement toujours composé de deux chambres: l'Assemblée nationale et le Sénat. Comme on peut s'en rendre compte, en comparant les constitutions, les institutions elles-mêmes n'ont pas vraiment changé. Seul leur fonctionnement s'est modifié de façon à renforcer le pouvoir exécutif, donc à limiter le rôle du Parlement dont les pouvoirs sont à ce point affaiblis qu'on a pu parler des "grandes vacances de la Démocratie."

Cette boutade n'infirme en rien l'action de contrepoids que joue le Parlement élu par rapport au gouvernement, représentant incontesté du pouvoir central. Or ce pouvoir central domine la scène politique et agit sur l'ensemble du pays par l'intermédiaire d'une série d'échelons qui correspondent aux structures administratives créées par la Révolution. Aujourd'hui la France métropolitaine comprend 95 départements dont quatre d'outre-mer. Ces départements sont divisés en quelque 300 arrondissements subdivisés eux-mêmes en quelque 3.000 cantons. Chacun de ces cantons comprend un certain nombre de communes, unités de base de la pyramide administrative française. On compte environ 30.000 de ces unités réparties sur tout le territoire métropolitain. Sauf pour le canton, à la tête de chaque échelon administratif se trouve un représentant du pouvoir central lequel relève du ministre de l'Intérieur. Celui-ci peut être le préfet pour le département, le sous-préfet pour l'arrondissement et le maire pour la commune.

Si l'esprit de système des Français a de tout temps favorisé la construction d'un édifice administratif fortement centralisé, d'autres forces ont joué, en sens contraire: l'individualisme, l'esprit libéral, l'idéal démocratique ont souvent agi depuis 1789 en faveur de la décentralisation. De même qu'à l'échelon national le Parlement élu fait contrepoids au gouvernement, de même a-t-on créé aux autres échelons géographiques deux assemblées elues au suffrage universel et destinées à délibérer sur la gestion des affaires régionales et locales. La première, le Conseil général, existe au niveau du département. Elle contrôle les communes et prend toutes décisions intéressant les questions d'intérêt départemental, laissant au préfet le soin d'exécuter ces décisions. La deuxième, le Conseil municipal, est un véritable conseil d'administration de la commune placé toutefois sous le contrôle de tutelle du préfet qui peut le suspendre ou en faire prononcer la dissolution par le Conseil des ministres.

Sans doute ce mélange de concentration dans la capitale, de déconcentration des pouvoirs par l'intermédiaire de représentants du gouvernement, et de décentralisation par des assemblées élues a-t-il pu assurer pendant longtemps à la France un équilibre satisfaisant. Mais aujourd'hui la machine administrative est devenue trop lourde pour faire face à des problèmes de plus en plus nombreux et complexes dépassant le cadre communal et départemental. Des réformes sont donc en cours qui, sans porter atteinte au rôle essentiel du maire et du préfet, cherchent à éviter la multiplication de leurs attributions et de leurs responsabilités. Ces réformes ont déjà abouti: d'une part en 1960 les départements ont été regroupés en 21 régions économiques soumises à l'autorité de préfets de région dont l'action et les décisions sont coordonnées avec celles des administrations départementales et locales. D'autre part, depuis 1959, on a assisté à un fusionnement des collectivités soit sous forme de syndicats communautaires pour des localités en voie de dépeuplement, soit sous forme de districts urbains comme celui de Tours créé en 1959, groupant les cités-dortoirs à la périphérie des villes, soit encore depuis décembre 1966, sous forme de communautés urbaines pour les communes composant les grandes agglomérations telles que Bordeaux, Lille, Lyon et Strasbourg. Le principal résultat de ces innovations a été la création de nouveaux établissements publics administratifs aux pouvoirs et aux ressources fort étendus, capables de répondre aux impératifs de la politique industrielle et de l'aménagement urbain.

Ces réformes, ce partage des responsabilités, si louables et efficaces soient-ils, restent toujours insuffissants devant l'acuité et l'urgence des problèmes politiques, économiques, sociaux, administratifs, nationaux ET internationaux auxquels la France est actuellement confrontée. On a parfois l'impression que le pays, en tant que puissance mondiale, n'est pas à même de se forger des solutions et de les imposer en raison de sa . . . fragilité, conséquence de la profondeur de ses divisions, de l'excès des querelles et des rivalités chez ses ressortissants. On peut aussi constater que l'influence des partis politiques a beaucoup augmenté. Il y a pour ainsi dire une lutte permanente des partis contre les institutions politiques. Témoins en sont les luttes entre pouvoir central et local. Pourtant ces partis sont peu représentatifs si on considère leurs effectifs, mais ils sont aussi les seuls à s'exprimer dans des organes nationaux, dan les medias, les seuls à tenir des congrès et à noyauter les syndicats. On n'entend qu'eux. S'il leur arrive de s'effacer et même de disparaître quand surviennent de grandes épreuves nationales (1939-40/1958/1968), en période de calme ils refont surface, pour manoeuvrer vers le pouvoir et chercher à le ressaisir.

CONCLUSION

Que de taches, que de failles dans cette fresque socio-politique de la France contemporaine! Ne traduisent-elles pas un certain désarroi, des incertitudes, des oppositions, des rejets même en présence d'un monde en mutation aux multiples problèmes dont la solution demande un nouvel examen des valeurs traditionnelles et un regroupement des ressources humaines et naturelles. Ce regroupement, ce réexamen ne se feront qu'à partir d'une concertation, d'un dialogue entre nations où chacun, faisant abstraction de ses préjugés, se libérant de son carcan ethnique, s'ouvrira au monde de l'an 2000, monde de compromis qui favorisera une véritable entente à l'échelle planétaire. Et politiquement, la France, en dépit de ses divisions apparentes, ne vit-elle pas déjà à l'heure d'un compromis politique fait de libéralisme et d'étatisation dans une structure sociale-démocrate déjà pratiquée chez certains de ses voisins. C'est cette structure qui pourrait accueillir la majorité des Français sans distinction de niveau social ou professionnel, ni, espérons-le, d'affiliation de parti. Alors et seulement à cette condition, l'avenir du pays se construira amenant la création et la consolidation d'un grand groupe central dont le noyau sera principalement représenté par une population homogène, jeune et dynamique, à l'heure du XXIe siècle et de son cadre de vie.

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Die Bundesrepublik Deutschland heute — zeitgemäße Betrachtungen

VORWORT

Im folgenden werden auf begrenztem Raum Entwicklungen in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland besprochen, die im Augenblick von besonderem Interesse sind. Da eine Auswahl aus vielen möglichen Themen getroffen werden mußte, beschränkt sich der Text auf vier Gebiete: (1) die wirtschaftliche Entwicklung; (2) deutsch/deutsche Fragen; (3) die Rolle von Frau und Jugend; und (4) Entwicklungen im Erziehungssystem. Der Text ist lediglich als Ansatz zur einer Diskussion gedacht. Zusätzlich zu den am Schluß angeführten Quellen wurde Information verwertet aus Zeitschriften wie *Zeit, Spiegel, Frankfurter Allgemeine* und Informationsmaterialien wie *Deutschlandnachrichten* und *Bulletin*.

DIE GEGENWÄRTIGE SOZIAL-ÖKONOMISCHE ENTWICKLUNG IN DER BUNDESREPUBLIK

Trotz seiner kleinen geographischen Ausmasse und Bevölkerungszahl, das Gebiet entspricht etwa der Grösse Oregons mit einer Bevölkerung von 6[illegible] Millionen, steht Westdeutschlands Bruttosozialprodukt an vierter Stelle hinter den USA, der UdSSR und Japan. Von noch grösserer Bedeutung ist seine Stellung als Handelsnation, wo es den zweiten Platz hinter den USA einnimmt. Deutschland entwickelte sich zu einer Industrienation im frühen zwanzigsten Jahrhundert. Trotz der Auswirkungen zwei verlorener Kriege und der Teilung des Landes nach dem Zweiten Weltkrieg erlaubten ihm gut entwickelte Erziehungs- und Regierungssysteme die wirtschaftliche Potenz kontinuierlich zu vergrössern.

Westdeutschlands Wirtschaft hat zwei bestimmte Entwicklungsphasen durchlaufen: einmal die Periode von 1949, dem Jahr der Teilung Deutschlands in die Bundesrepublik Deutschland und die Deutsche Demokratische Republik, bis 1969 und zum zweiten von 1969 bis zur Gegenwart. Die erste Periode wurde politisch von der Christlich-Demokratischen Union (CDU), einer zentristisch-rechts ausgerichteten Partei bestimmt. In diesen Jahren ereignete sich in Westdeutschland das vielzitierte Wirtschaftswunder. Es begann mit den physischen und psychischen Trümmern des Cweiten Weltkriegs aber auch mit funktionierendem Erziehungs- und Regierungssystem, beide auf gut geschultem Beamtenapparat aufgebaut, und dem erstaunlichen Mut, Glauben und Fleiss des deutschen Volkes, das eigene Leben und die Gesellschaft physisch und geistig wiederaufzubauen. Anhand dieser

Gebenheiten war es für die Christdemokraten vielleicht relativ einfach, die hohen Wirtschaftswachstumsraten der damaligen Zeit zu erzielen. Aber sie taten weit mehr. Eine Umstrukturierung des sozial-ökonomischen Lebens begann, nämlich hin zu der freien Marktwirtschaft, der internationalen politischen und wirtschaftlichen Integration Westdeutschlands und einem bisher einmaligen Beispiel einer Industriedemokratie, die auf Betriebsverfassungsgesetz und Mitbestimmung aufgebaut war.

Die zweite Periode von 1969 bis zur Gegenwart stand unter dem Handlungseinfluss der sozial-liberalen Koalition — einer Regierung, die sich aus Sozial-und Freidemokraten, also SPD und FDP, zusammensetzte. Der oben erwähnte Umstrukturierungsprozess wurde fortgesetzt und erweitert. Reformen in der Verteilung und Umschichtung des Volksvermögens und ein einmalig dastehendes enggestricktes Sicherheitsnetz zum Schutz gegen Arbeitslosigkeit, Erziehungsbenachteiligungen, Krankheit und Altersbeschwerden wurde hinzugefügt. Diese Programme waren natürlich tief in der sozialdemokratischen Ideologie verwurzelt. Jedoch ein Wandel im Denken und Handeln machte sich von Anfang der zweiten Periode an bemerkbar. Der Akzent des sozial-ökonomischen Lebens der Bundesrepublik wurde von Wachstum an sich auf Vertiefung und Verwaltung des Erreichten gesetzt.

Während der sechziger Jahre schien Westdeutschland eine befriedigte wenn nicht glückliche Gesellschaft zu sein. Es wurde zum Modell für andere westliche Industrienationen. Die wirtschaftlichen Messziffern wie Wachstum, Handelsbilanz, Währungsreserven und -stabilität, Arbeitsmarkt und Lebensstandard und -qualität sahen im Vergleich sehr gut aus zu anderen Staaten der Europäischen Gemeinschaft und anderen Nationen. Und trotzdem machten sich hintergründige, vereinzelte aber dennoch signifikante Probleme bemerkbar. Gerade die Austrengungen, das wirtschaftlich und gesellschaftlich Erreichte zu vertiefen und verwalten, brachten Forderungen mit sich, die an Leichtfertigkeit grenzten, d.h., einige Forderungen hatten wenig langfristigen gesellschaftlichen oder wirtschaftlichen Wert —im Gegenteil, sie bewirkten das Entgegengesetzte. Produktivetäts-und Wirtschaftswachstumsraten fielen im privaten wie öffentlichen Sektor. Die öffenliche Verschuldung von Bund, Ländern und Kommunen nahm bedrohlich zu — aber vielleicht das wichtigste Indiz dieser Probleme zeigte sich an dem wachsenden Anteil der Jugend und mancher älterer Deutschen, die nicht mehr die „grande idée" vernahmen — jenes abstrakte Gefühl des Seins und Handelns als Einzelmensch und gleichzeitig als kollektives Mitglied der nationalen Gemeinschaft. Entfremdung, drogen- oder alkoholbegründete Probleme, Zivillosigkeit und Terrorismus reckten ihr Haupt.

Wie begegnet man diesen potentiell gefährlichen Entwicklungen? Im Frühjahr 1981 sprach Bundeskanzler Schmidt das Identitätsproblem an. Ohne die „grande idée" anbieten zu können, versuchte er den Bürgern das Erreichte, aber auch die Verantwortung vor der Zukunft vor Auge zu führen. Amerikaner werden sich an die Worte von Präsident Kennedy erinnern, ohne die ähnlichen Umstände und versäumte Aufforderung zu verkennen. Auf der konkreten, aber in diesem Fall zweifelslos nicht wichtigeren ökonomischen Handlungsebene versucht man die Probleme durch Produktivitätsanreize und Währungstabilität zu überkommen. Ein gemeinsam mit Frankreich entwickeltes und arabisch-finanziertes 10 Milliarden

DM Investitonsprogramm für kleinere und mittlere Industrieunternehmen zur Ankurbelung von energienosparenden, produktivitätserhöhenden oder technologieerweiternden Projekten stellt eine neue Regierungsaufgabe dar. Politisch und wirtschaftlich interessant, darf dabei der weiterhin ansteigende Verschuldungsgrad des Bundes nicht übersehen werden. Die Bundesregierung hat fernerhin versucht, die Energieversorgung zu gewährleisten. Die Erschliessung neuer und neuartiger Energiequellen einschliesslich eines grossen sowjetischen Gasversorgungsprojektes werden vorangetrieben. Der Ausbau der nuklearen Stromversorgung macht aber aus politischen Gründen nur sehr langsame Fortschritte. Letztlich wäre das von Westdeutschland und Frankreich konzipierte Europäische Währungssystem zu erwähnen. Dieses System ist als eine direkte Antwort zu betrachten auf Amerikas mangelhafte Bemühungen ein effizientes und faires Währungssystem zu schaffen. Obwohl das Europäische Währungssystem noch in den Kinderschuhen steckt, hat es sich in den ersten zwei Jahren gut bewährt. Mit Hinsicht auf die gegenwärtige sozial-ökonomische Entwicklung in Westdeutschland, in der Tat in Westeuropa, könnte dieses System eines Tages als eins der wichtigeren Vorkommnisse gelten.

INNERDEUTSCHE BEZIEHUNGEN VON HEUTE

Es gibt zwei Handlungsebenen, auf denen sich die Beziehungen abspielen zwischen der Bundesrepublik Deutschland, d.h., West-Deutschland, und der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik (DDR), d.h., Ost-Deutschland. Auf der einen sind es die pragmatischen, konkreten Handelsbeziehungen. Auf der anderen ercheinen nur die Silhouetten, die huschenden Schatten, die das größte politische Ereignis und Problem des zwanzigsten Jahrhunderts verkörpern: das Existieren und die Evolution von primär zentral oder vom einzelnen determinierte und kontrollierte sozial-ökonomische Systeme.

Beide Teile Deutschlands sind wichtige Industrie- und Handelsmächte in ihren jeweiligen Sphären. Beide Teile haben großen Anteil gehabt an der ideologischen Entwicklung und Praxis der respektiven Systeme. Daher stellen die wechselseitigen Wirkungen und Beziehungen zwischen den beiden Teilen Deutschlands einen Mikrokosmos der ost-west Beziehungen im generellen dar. Es ist sogar wahrscheinlich, wenn nicht notwendig, daß die Definition und Lösung dieses Problems des zwanzigsten Jahrhunderts im ost-west-deutschen Labor zu suchen ist.

Handelsbeziehungen. Der Warenverkehr zwischen den beiden Teilen Deutschlands beruht auf dem Berliner Abkommen von 1951 in der Fassung vom 16.8.1960. Der Handel ist zollfrei und wird über Verrechnungseinheiten abgewickelt, die im Wert gleich einer Deutschen Mark (DM) sind. Der Saldo der beiderseitigen Lieferungen und Bezüge wird jährlich festgestellt. Dabei können von der DDR zinslose Kredite, der sogenannte Swing, in Anspruch genommen werden. Eine weitere indirekte Vergünstigung besteht in den Zahlungen der Bundesrepublik an die DDR, z.B. für die Benutzung der Transitwege nach Westberlin, im Jahr 1980 waren das 525 Millionen DM, und dem Neubau der Autobahn Berlin-Hamburg sowie Leistungen im Post- und Telefonverkehr — weitere 500 Millionen DM im Jahr 1980. Der innerdeutsche Handel wuchs von 2,2 Milliarden Verrechnungseinheiten im Jahr 1960 auf 11,7 Milliarden im Jahr 1980 an. Das stellt ungefähr 2% des westdeutschen und 8% des ostdeutschen Aussenhandels dar. Während also der innerdeutsche Handel eine beachtliche finanzielle Grössenordnung hat, fällt er im Verhältnis eher unbedeutend aus. Im Vergleich stellt der westdeutsche Handel mit den Ostblockstaaten (Rat für gegenseitige Wirtschaftshilfe oder auch COMECON genannt) einschliesslich der DDR 7% des Aussenhandels dar, während der ostdeutsche Handel mit dem Westen einschliesslich der Bundesrepublik 25% des Aussenhandels ausmacht.

Voraussichtlich wird der innerdeutsche Handel eine weiterhin mässig steigende Tendenz beibehalten, trotz der Schwierigheiten der COMECON Staaten geplante Wirtschaftswachstumswerte zu verwirklichen. Nur Bulgarien und die DDR erreichten ungefähr ihre Wachstumsraten, während der Ostblock als Gesamtes heftig fallende Raten hinnehmen musste. So wurde z.B. zwischen den Jahren 1965 und 1975 ein Durchschnittswachstum von 6,8% jährlich erzielt. In den darauffolgenden vier Jahren, also von 1976 bis 1979, fielen diese Raten aber auf 5,5, 5,0, 4,7 und 1,8 Prozent.

Die Suche nach der Definition und dem Lösungsansatz für das Politische Problem. Das intradeutsche Problem, das heisst, eine Nation geteilt in zwei politisch selbständige Einheiten — die Bundesrepublik und die DDR — reicht weit über die Grenzen dieser beiden relativ kleinen Staaten hinaus. Deutschland zeigt die Dimensionen des ost-west Problems im Kleinen. Auf der einen Seite ruht die Bestimmung über Leben und Besitz in der Hand des einzelnen, auf der anderen Seite in der Hand einer Zentralinstitution-der Partei. Beide gesellschaftlichen Systeme haben ihre Lebensfähigheit bewiesen, beide sind politische Realität, beide durchlaufen ihre Entwicklungsstadien mit zum Teil system-inhärenten Stärken oder Schwächen. Man hat diese Systeme als verschiedene Stadien in der übergeordneten Evolution der Industriegesellschaft angesehen; man hat gesagt, daß das eine oder beide Systeme den Verfallkeim, den Zusammenbruch in sich trügen; man hat eine Konvergenztheorie postuliert. All das beruht auf Spekulation und nicht auf historischen oder sozial-ökonomischen Tatsachen. Sicher ist nur eins: beide Systeme sind lebensfähig und sie konkurrieren miteinander. Dieser Konkurrenzkampf wurde vom Osten zuerst als ein unvermeidbarer militärischer Umsturz des kapitalistischen Systems angesehen. Aber seit 1956 (20. Parteitag der KPdSU) wurde dieses Konzept mit dem Begriff der friedliebenden, konkurrierenden Koexistenz ersetzt, welcher aber als eine Art systeminhärenten Ansporns den letzlich „selbstverständlichen" sozialistischen Sieg über den Kapitalisums beibehielt. Wie es sich zeigen sollte, wurden beide Systeme von den gleichen Variablen geformt und verändert. Die amerikanische Politik des *containment* stellte sich als schlecht durchdacht, kostspielig und ineffektiv heraus. Als ein hoher sowjetischer Politiker den westlichen Ländern vor der UNO versicherte, daß die Sowjetunion sie übertreffen würde, stieß er auf mildes Lächeln und verlor selbst im eigenen Land an Glaubwürdigkeit.

Im Jahr 1969 begann die Bundesrepublik einen realitätsbezogenen Dialog zwischen den beiden Systemen. Die Regierung achtete sorgfältig darauf, daß dabei nur das deutsche Problem zur Sprache kam. Dennoch übernahm sie dadurch das Szepter der politischen Initiative aus schwächer werdenden amerikanischen Händen. In den siebziger Jahren vertiefte nicht nur die Bundesrepublik, sondern auch Frankreich und die Sowjetunion ihr Verständnis für die gemeinsame Rolle, die sie in der Real- und Ostpolitik spielten.

Gegen diese Kulisse muß die Suche nach Definition und Lösungsansatz für das politische Problem gesehen werden. Nur Silhouetten, nur huschende Schatten und nur manchmal kleine aber vielsagende konkrete Erkenntnisse und Handlungen werden da sichtbar in einer Kakophonie der journalistischen und politischen Polemik. Auf dieser Bühne wirkt der kleinere und politisch schwächere ostdeutsche Teil oft hysterisch-schrill, ohne es sein zu wollen. Der westdeutsche Teil, gleichermassen ohne es zu ahnen, wirkt oft überheblich. Und dennoch gelten für beide Systeme unabänderliche Entwicklungsprozesse, die es beiden Teilen erlauben neue Erkenntnisse, oft gleicher Art, zu gewinnen. Zum Beispiel kann nur wenig Zweifel daran bestehen, daß sich die Menschen in Ost- und Westdeutschland gleichermassen als *eine* Nation betrachten, obwohl diese Nation unnatürlich und vorübergehend geteilt ist. Das ist auch ersichtlich aus dem Grundgesetz der Bundesrepublik und den Verfassungen der DDR. Während jedoch letztere im Jahr 1949 noch besagte „Deutschland ist eine unteilbare Republik" wurde jegliche Erwähnung des Nationsgedankens aus der neuen Verfassung von 1974 entfernt. Westdeutsche betrachteten verständnislos diese Entwicklung oder gaben unüberzeugende Erklärungen dazu ab. Der Ostdeutsche muss zwar den Versuch erkannt haben, über Verfassungsänderungen zwischen den Jahren 1949 und 1974 der DDR immer mehr die Prägung einer sogenannten Volksdemokratie zu geben; still ertragende Verständnislosigheit muß es aber auch bei ihm gegeben haben. Dann wurde im Jahr 1981 der Missionschef der Bundesrepublik in Ost-Berlin abgelöst. In einem Abschiedsinterview stellte der scheidende Politiker — was auch immer seine Gründe gewesen sein mögen — den Nationsbegriff in Frage. Die westdeutsche Kritik setzte sofort ein. Weniger als einen Monat später erwog das Staatsoberhaupt der DDR öffentlich die Möglichkeiten einer deutschen Wiedervereinigung.

FRAU UND JUGEND IN DER BUNDESREPUBLIK DEUTSCHLAND

Das im Jahre 1949 in Kraft getretene Grundgesetz der Bundesrepublik Deutschland sichert Gleichheit vor dem Gesetz. Artikel 3 heißt: [Gleichheit vor dem Gesetz]

(1) Alle Menschen sind vor dem Gesetz gleich.
(2) Männer und Frauen sind gleichberechtigt.
(3) Niemand darf wegen seines Geschlechtes, seiner Abstammung, seiner Rasse, seiner Sprache, seiner Heimat und Herkunft, seines Glaubens, seiner religiösen oder politischen Anschauungen benachteiligt oder bevorzugt werden.

Somit gibt es in der BRD gesetzlich gesicherte Freiheit. Weiterhin wird im Rahmen der Gesellschafts-und Sozialpolitik der Familie und der Rolle der Frau sowie den Bedürfnissen des Kindes große Beachtung geschenkt. Das 1949 gegründete Familienministerium hat eine entsprechend wichtige Funktion. Familie und Ehe werden vom Staat ideologisch und gesetzlich unterstützt. Der Staat bemüht sich, die sozialen, kulturellen und wirtschaftlichen Bedingungen dafür zu schaffen, daß ein freies und selbstverantwortlich gestaltetes Zusammenleben der Menschen in Familien möglich ist und, daß das schwächste Glied der Gesellschaft, das Kind, besonders geschützt ist. Die Gesellschaft versucht besonders dem Kind Anteil an dem Bildungs-und Beschäftigungssystem zu sichern.

Trotz vieler Fortschritte und der gesetzlichen Absicherung ist wirkliche Gleichheit für die Frau, besonders im Berufsleben, noch nicht erreicht. Die Gründe dafür sind komplexer und vielfältiger Art. In fast jeder Altersgruppe überwiegen die Frauen um etwa drei Millionen. Unter denen, die über fünfundvierzig Jahre alt sind, sind es sogar vier Millionen. Es gibt mehr als viereinhalb Millionen Witwen, fünfmal die Zahl der Witwer. Die Folgen des zweiten Weltkrieges bestimmen noch immer das Schicksal einer ganzen Frauengeneration.

Frauen stellen heute etwa 37% der Erwerbstätigen. Fast 40% aller verheirateten Frauen sind berufstätig, allerdings davon 15% nur halbtags. Etwa die Hälfte aller Abiturienten und fast 40% der Universitätsstudenten sind Frauen. Obgleich die Berufsarbeit der Frau im Bildungs-und Gesundheitswesen, in Wirtschaft und Politik unentbehrlich geworden ist, bleibt sie nach wie vor weitgehend auf die „traditionell" weiblichen Berufe beschränkt oder auf Fließbandarbeit, die noch zu 65% von Frauen geleistet wird. Von den 17 Millionen jungen Menschen, die nach dem Schulabgang keine weitere Ausbildung durchmachten, sind 72% Mädchen. Man nimmt an, daß dies z.T. auf noch in den Familien vorherrschende veraltete Ansichten zurückgehen — sie heiratet ja doch, was braucht sie eine Ausbildung.

Ein weiteres Problem ist die Benachteiligung der Frauen bei der Bezahlung. 1977 betrug der Durchschnittslohn eines Arbeiters 11,89 DM, einer Arbeiterin 8,64 DM. Die Unterschiede sind ähnlich groß bei Angestelltengehältern. Nur im öffentlichen Dienst ist „Gleicher Lohn für gleiche Arbeit" zur Wirklichkeit geworden, obgleich auch hier den Frauen die höheren Stellen oft versagt bleiben und weiterhin beim beruflichen Aufstieg diskriminiert wird, oft zwar nur indirekt. Auch in der Politik ist die Zahl der aktiven Frauen noch verhältnismäßig gering, doch stetig im Anstieg begriffen.

Je mehr die Frau aus finanzieller Notwendigkeit heraus oder um Selbstverwirklichung zu finden, beruflich tätig ist, desto mehr muß sich die Gesellschaft mit den daraus erwachsenden sozialen Veränderungen befassen. Damit hängt natürlich auch der Geburtenrückgang zusammen. Jedoch wird als Hauptgrund dafür der etwa um 1964 erschienene „Pillenknick" gesehen. Zwischen 1965 bis 1975 wurden 40% weniger Kinder zur Welt gebracht. Erst 1979 stieg die Zahl der Neugeborenen um ein Prozent gegenüber dem Vorjahr. Förderung junger Familien durch Kindergeld, Erziehungsgeld, staatlich gezahlten Sonderurlaub für Mütter, Mutterschaftsgeld und Kindergärten sollen es ermöglichen, daß Frauen Familie und Beruf miteinander vereinbaren können, und daß somit die Zahl der Neugeborenen wieder ansteigt. Sollte dies nicht der Fall sein, so sieht sich die BRD in etwa fünfzig Jahren einem schwierigen Problem gegenüber: auf einem schwachen Unterbau von jungen erwerbstätigen Menschen lastet ein Berg von alten Rentnern. Die Lebenserwartung für Männer ist heute 69 Jahre, für Frauen 76 Jahre (vor hundert Jahren waren es 38 Jahre!). Auch der Zuwachs von Einwanderern, der die Bevölkerungszahl 1980 um 0.4% erhöhte (Gesamteinwohnerzahl der BRD im Juli 1981: 61.658) kann hier nur geringfügige Wirkung haben. Was die BRD braucht, ist ein eine Art von Baby-Boom, wie etwa in den fünfziger und sechziger Jahren. Doch die finanzielle Belastung, die ein Kind, trotz aller staatlichen Hilfen, mit sich bringt, sind viele junge Ehepaare nicht gewillt zu tragen, besonders wenn es auf Kosten ihres oft recht hohen Lebensstandards geht.

Das Wirtschaftswunder und das soziale Sicherheitsnetz der BRD hat nicht nur einen bisher in der deutschen Geschichte unerreichten Wohlstand herbeigeführt, sondern gleichzeitig zur Folge gehabt, daß der einzelne Bürger viel vom Staat erwartet, ja fordert, was in anderen industrialisierten Ländern wie den USA noch selbstverständlich vom Einzelnen getragen wird. Man denke dabei nur an freie Ausbildung, Mutterschutzgesetz und Gesundheitswesen. Die Gefahr besteht, daß der deutsche Bürger nicht gewillt ist, durch entsprechende Gegenleistung und Eigeninitiative den sozialen Wohlfahrtsstaat zu ermöglichen und weiterhin zu tragen. Die Nachkriegsgeneration kennt nur ein Leben geschützt vom sozialen Sicherheitsnetz, ohne dabei selbst am Wiederaufbau direkt beteiligt gewesen zu sein.

Besonders für den im Ausland lebenden Beobachter ist es immer wieder erstaunlich zu hören und lesen, wie unzufrieden besonders die deutsche Jugend ist. Kritik am Staat ist auch oft alles andere als konstruktiv. Die Angst vor „nationaler Begeisterung" — verständlich im Rückblick auf Deutschlands Geschichte —äußert sich in einem „Alles-Hinterfragen", einer anti-Haltung, die schon beinahe Mode ist. Auf der positiven Seite muß gesagt werden, daß besonders bei der Jugend einer Befürwortung der Europäischen Gemeinschaft und der friedlichen Koexistenz mit allen Nachbarn, einschließlich der östlichen, oft Ausdruck gegeben wird. Die „antinationalistische" und „antimilitaristische" Haltung der deutschen Jugend, (oder eines hohen Prozentsatzes derselben) kann je nach politischer Ausrichtung positiv oder negativ gewertet werden.

Die Tatsache, daß Kritik am Staat offen geübt wird und werden kann, sichert nicht immer, daß dies auf friedliche Art geschieht. Proteste gegen den Bau und die Inbetriebnahme von Atomkraftwerken und Hausbesetzungen in den Großstädten haben vielfach zu Ausschreitungen und Gewalttätigkeit geführt. Die BRD steht unter den europäischen Nachbarstaaten nicht allein in ihren Bemühungen um eine friedliche Lösung dieser Probleme. Nationen wie Holland und die Schweiz stehen ähnlichen Auseinandersetzungen gegenüber. Wie auch in diesen Staaten versucht die BRD Vorsorge für die Lebenschancen der nachwachsenden Generation zu schaffen. Das kann nur erfolgreich sein, wenn zur materiellen Sicherheit und Chancengleichheit bei den Ausbildungsmöglichkeiten, der Jugend auch die Chance gegeben wird, auf friedlichem Weg und im Rahmen des Rechtstaats ihre tägliche Umwelt tatsächlich mitzugestalten.

ERZIEHUNG IN DER BUNDESREPUBLIK

Während der vergangenen 15 Jahre ist das Erziehungssystem weitgehend reformiert und in manchen Aspekten sogar grundlegend verändert worden. Konzepte wie „Chancengleichheit" und „Durchlässigkeit" wurden zu generellen Richtlinien. Die Gesamtschule wurde trotz Opposition, die auch heute noch besteht, in allen Bundesländern neben den „traditionellen" Schulen eingeführt und betreut die Schüler von der fünften Klasse bis zum Abitur, indem die sonst getrennten Zweige, nämlich Hauptschule, Realschule und Gymnasium, hier „unter einem Dach" sind. Von 1950 bis 1979 ist der Anteil der Volksschüler/Hauptschüler von 87,4 auf 55,3% zurückgegangen, während der Anteil an Abiturienten an einem

Jahrgang um das 3,3 fache stieg. Reformen zur Neugestaltung der Sekundarstufe II, der gymnasialen Oberstufe, haben zu einem Wahlfachsystem geführt mit dem Resultat, daß im Abitur nicht einmal mehr ein Deutschaufsatz obligat ist. Auf der einen Seite werden schulische Anforderungen, Leistungszwang und Notenpanik vielfach kritisiert, auf der anderen Seite gibt es viele Erleichterungen, die früher ganz unvorstellbar waren:

- in den ersten beiden Klassen (der Grundschule) gibt es kein Sitzenbleiben mehr,
- Klassenarbeiten und Tests müssen angesagt werden,
- pro Tag ist nur noch eine Arbeit zulässig,
- montags, nach Feiertagen und nach Ferien dürfen überhaupt keine Arbeiten geschrieben werden,
- Hausaufgaben entfallen am Wochenende ganz, ansonsten dürfen sie nur bestimmte Zeit in Anspruch nehmen.

Diese humanen Regelungen, die übrigens nicht einheitlich in allen Ländern durchgeführt werden, sollten dazu führen, Schulstreß und Schulangst zu verringern, was aber allen Anzeichen nach, nicht eingetreten ist. Die Jahresbilanz für Selbstmorde von Schülern liegt bei 1.500, für Selbstmordversuche bei 10.000 bis 18.000. Man steht diesen Zahlen erschreckt und hilflos gegenüber. Dabei darf natürlich nicht übersehen werden, daß allein 1981 über 400.000 Schüler nicht versetzt wurden.

Auch auf anderen Stufen des Ausbildungssystems wird die Leistungsbereitschaft junger Menschen oft nicht ausgenutzt: es fehlen Studienplätze (numerus clausus), Plätze für Auszubildende, Referendarstellen, Lehrstellen und sogar Professorenstellen. Da auch die BRD in Zukunft etwas wird sparen müssen, ist eine Erleichterung dieser Probleme vorläufig nicht vorauszusehen. Eine weitere wichtige Veränderung im Erziehungssystem ist die Einführung des Unterrichtsbereichs „Deutsch als Fremdsprache." Auf Grund der hohen Zahl der in der BRD lebenden Gastarbeiter ist es notwendig geworden, den Kindern und Erwachsenen sprachliche und kulturelle Integration im schulischen Bereich und in der Erwachsenenausbildung zu ermöglichen. Die dazu erforderliche Lehrerausbildung hat wiederum an Universitäten und Hochschulen den entsprechenden Fachbereich zur Voraussetzung gehabt. Ähnlich wie bei „Englisch als Fremdsprache" in den Vereinigten Staaten hat man sich zum Teil ganz neuen Problemen gegenüber gesehen, die zum Teil noch ungelöst sind. Hinzu kommt, daß sich im Augenblick eine Reformmüdigkeit bemerkbar macht, z.T. auf Grund mißglückter Experimente und anderer politisch und ökonomisch bedingter Faktoren.

Dabei darf aber nicht die Tatsache unbeachtet werden lassen, 1. daß der Staat die Kosten der Erziehung aller und den Lebensunterhalt vieler junger Menschen trägt, 2. daß die Berufsausbildung der BRD im Vergleich zu anderen Ländern vorbildlich ist (nach einer 1981 OECD Studie) und, 3. daß 80% aller 15 bis 20 jährigen in Schulen und Universitäten sind, was der BRD eine besonders niedrige Jugendarbeitslosenquote gibt. Man sollte also heute nicht nur fragen: Was haben wir falsch gemacht?, sondern man kann gleichzeitig mit Genugtuung zurückblicken auf erfolgreich durchgeführte Reformen und ein Bildungssystem, das den Anforderungen der nächsten Jahrzehnte gewachsen ist.

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L'Italia Contemporanea

L'Italia del 1982 presenta il quadro di un paese consumistico con delle forti transizioni sociali e politiche che vanno, se vogliamo, dalla forma modificata del Carnevale al nuovo governo laico. Questo fenomeno, che ha le sue origini al tempo della fine della seconda guerra mondiale, si spiega in termini dello sviluppo di una società chiusa in rapporto dialettico con una società industriale avanzata.

Dal 1955 il numero d'impiegati nell'industria è salito a quasi il 50%, quello nel settore terziario al 38% mentre quello nell'agricoltura si è ridotto al 12%. Oggi l'Italia è quinta nella graduatoria dei paesi più sviluppati e uno studio dell'United States Department of Labor pubblicato nel 1979 rivela che il paese è al primo posto per la percentuale di aumento nella produzione industriale.

Questo cambiamento da paese essenzialmente agrario a quello industriale ha creato una società dove si verifica la perdita del significato del lavoro, l'indebolimento della famiglia, del patriottismo e dell' orgoglio regionale e dove le tendenze programmatiche, scientifiche ed edonistiche vengono a sostituire l'impegno alle ideologie. L'affievolimento dell'ideale classico-umanistico segna il sorgere della nuova élite culturale con interessi che sono pluralistici e che intersecano sottoculture, altri sistemi di valori e persone di tutti i ceti. Nel 1982 rimane poco ovvia la distinzione fra quelli che hanno il potere e il controllo dei mezzi di produzione e il resto della popolazione.

Il rapporto attuale fra cultura e società si caratterizza per la sua ridotta distanza che fino a poco fa separava le fonti di elaborazione culturale dai grandi mezzi di comunicazione di massa, per una ristretta importanza delle riviste di cultura politica che ora trattano temi di attualità legati alla situazione politica e sociale, e per una rivalutazione dello sviluppo della cultura che riflette il paese qual è senza miti e mistificazioni.

Cercheremo in questo breve lavoro di esemplificare alcuni dei cambiamenti più significativi degli ultimi anni.

Due avvenimenti recentissimi sembrano simboleggiare il paese in transizione: il risultato del referendum del 17-18 maggio del 1981 e le elezioni del 21 giugno dello stesso anno.

IL REFERENDUM

Questo ha continuato la legge sull'aborto con 68% degli elettori a favore. Ciò desta domande sulla natura del cattolicesimo in Italia e dell'approccio di Giovanni Paolo II che aveva appoggiato la campagna a rovesciare la legge, ai rapporti chiesa-stato. Il referendum sottolinea quel che succede in Italia da circa venti anni: il paese è più laico che nel passato, più sensibile alle questioni del femminismo e meno disposto a seguire l'ideologia di partito o di chiesa.

LE ELEZIONI

Non si può sottovalutare l'importanza storica delle elezioni già menzionate. Dopo trentacinque anni di predominio democristiano un uomo politico laico diventa presidente del consiglio. Dobbiamo ricordare che Giovanni Spadolini è il segretario di quel piccolo partito, il repubblicano, che fu ideato come strumento per mantere viva la tradizione laica e democratica del risorgimento acconto ai cattolici e ai comunisti, con lo scopo di creare una terza forza che andasse dai socialisti ai liberali. (La presenza di questi nel governo non è casuale come non è soltanto tattico il tono diverso dell'opposizione comunista.)

Spadolini gode il frutto di questa tenacia ideale e anche perché è il momento addatto per una svolta in cui le forze laiche abbiano di nuovo un ruolo.

Accanto al successo dei socialisti, che con la loro prima grande avanzata dal '46 sono oggi la terza grande politica del paese, spicca la regressione della Democrazia cristiana (Dc). Il partito ha mantenuto le sue posizioni solo in Sicilia dove i suoi dirigenti si aspettavano un forte successo ma è stato scheggiato in parecchie parti da Genova a Roma a Bari. In oltre ha perso quattro o cinque punti sia rispetto alle elezioni amministrative del '76 sia a quelle politiche del '79.

I risultati ci offrono due indicazioni fondamentali. La prima è l'avanzata dello schieramento laico-socialista dove tutti i partiti laici hanno in qualche modo guadagnato. La seconda indicazione è che la sinistra cresce. Nonostante imbarazzanti esiti a Bari, le sue vittorie a Roma e nel nord mettono il Partito comunista italiano (Pci) in condizione di ricupero rispetto alle elezioni di due anni fa. Per molti comunisti si torna a parlare di "due Italie" dopo che il referendum sembrava aver colmato uno storico fossato. Insieme ai socialisti il partito appare rafforzato, un fatto che potrebbe avere un notevole influsso sul futuro del paese.

La logica del risultato elettorale vorrebbe un governo di marcata impronta laico-socialista con i primi segni di ridimensionamento della Dc. Ma le cose potrebbero andare diversamente se Flaminio Piccoli, segretario della Dc, riesce a strappare quel che serve per riaffermare un'egemonia democristiana. Ma allora bisognerà sapere che il 24% delle astensioni delle elezioni potranno aumentare nel futuro la rottura dell'ultimo filo che unisce la società civile alla società politica.

Il governo che ha giurato il 28 giugno 1981 segna una separazione dal passato ed è accolto dagli italiani con molte speranze. Ciò accade proprio in uno dei momenti più inquietanti dal punto di vista politico e più gravi sul piano economico e sociale che l'Italia abbia attraversato dopo la fine del fascismo.

Spadolini ha cominciato a corrispondere alle aspettative come per esempio nella scelta di ministri dove invece di farsi dirigere dai "diktat" dei capi dei partiti li ha scelti in modo da effettuare il ricupero del ruolo delle istituzioni rispetto ai partiti e della funzione del Parlamento.

Il primo e più urgente problema per il nuovo governo è quello di bloccare l'inflazione, il cui tasso supera il 2%, che si può realizzare con il contenere il disavanzo della spesa pubblica e con l'affrontare la questione della scala mobile e del costo del lavoro.

Riportiamo dal *Corriere della sera* del 19 luglio 1981 i primi passi della strategia del consiglio dei ministri per i problemi economici.

Prezzo Carburanti. Il Comitato Interministeriale dei Prezzi (CIP) ha portato, dalla mezzanotte di ieri, il prezzo della benzina super da 900 a 930 lire. La benzina normale è stata aumentata da 865 a 895 lire, il gasolio auto da 400 a 406 lire, il gasolio per riscaldamento da 366 a 372 lire (per quest'ultimo il prezzo può variare da zona a zona). E' il settimo aumento degli ultimi dodici mesi.

Nomine. Il governo ha proceduto alle sostituzioni degli alti gradi militari e del servizi segreti (diamo la tabella aparte) dimessisi per lo scandolo della Loggia P2. E' stato anche deciso un ampio movimento di prefetti.

Lotta All'Inflazione. Approvando un disegno di legge per l'assestamento del bilancio dello Stato nel secondo semestre dell'anno il governo ha autorizzato una serie di manovre contabili che dovranno cercare di contenere il deficit di cassa, finanziato con indebitamenti del Tesoro, nei già previsti 37.500 miliardi.

Tasse. Chi guadagna sino a tre milioni l'anno è esente dal pagamento di imposte dirette: il vecchio limite era di due milioni e mezzo. Spadolini ha invece escluso che sia allo studio una imposta patrimoniale.

Commissioni D'Esame. Gli statali che partecipano a commissioni di qualunque tipo godranno di indennità più adequate delle attuali, secondo un disegno di legge Andreatta.

Tariffe ENEL. Andreatta ha chiesto un nuovo aumento delle tariffe Ente Nazionale per l'Energia Elettrica (ENEL)

Ortofrutticoli. l'Aima potrà collocare sui mercati esteri le nostre eccedenze agricole, compresi gli ortofrutticoli trasformati.

Contributi. Sono stati concessi nuovi contributi alla Lega contro i tumori e all'opera Montessori.

Stipendi Agli Statali. Andreatta ha assicurato che con quello di luglio verranno pagati i nuovi stipendi al personale scolastico. Difficoltà tecniche stanno invece rallentando il saldo degli arretrati.

Sanità. Per la convenzione dei medici generici era prevista l'entrata in vigore col 1° luglio ma il governo intende rivederla alla luce delle compatibilità che emergeranno dal confronto con il sindacato.

All'appello all'austerità ci si aggiunge quello al consenso degli italiani a essere equamente chiamati a fare il loro dovere.

I GIOVANI

Se regge l'ipotesi di una nuova cultura per spiegare la società italiana degli ultimi anni ciò si verifica più ampiamenti fra i giovani che fra gli adulti. Le differenze fra i giovani dai 18 ai 24 anni e la popolazione in generale sono significative. I giovani sono simili alla media degli adulti per i valori dell'informalità, dell'essere responsabile dei diritti civili e politici, della necessità di una comune piattaforma di benessere e di sicurezza, del rifiuto della speculazione industriale e dell'opportunità di un ritorno a forme di vita più libere e naturali. Dal tempo degli avvenimenti del '68 si sentono spesso accomunati agli operai con cui condividono il senso di essere di nuovo piccolo-borghesi.

Ma i giovani sono nettamente diversi dalla media della popolazione adulta per il rifiuto della famiglia e della convinzione di poterla surrogare con il gruppo, per il credere nella libertà dalle leggi e dalle norme fissate da un potere coercitivo, nella libertà sessuale e nella liberazione della donna.

La generazione matura ha continuato a comportarsi nel modo in cui era stata formata ma ha considerato con favore e tolleranza il fatto che i giovani crescessero diversi e da ciò forse deriva la distanza, fin dove esiste, fra una generazione e l'altra. I contadini hanno insegnato ai loro figli a guardare con diffidenza il lavoro manuale, a non dare nulla gratuitamente e a perseguire delle mete ambiziose.

LE SCUOLE

Venticinque anni fa c'erano poche scuole ed erano per le élite. Lo sviluppo economico degli anni '60 ha imposto il bisogno di una educazione per le masse con cui creare una mano d'opera perita e così si è stabilito l'obbligo di frequenza fino ai 14 anni d'età. Il 1967 è contrassegnato dall'inizio del fenomeno *beat* sulla rottura politica determinata dalle agitazioni degli studenti che sboccano nel movimento studentesco. È proprio qui che si comincia a concepire l'educazione come strumento di trasformazione sociale. Nel '69 hanno luogo le occupazioni delle università e si mette in moto la ripresa sindacale che culmina nel cosiddetto autunno caldo.

Questa espansione universitaria rimane caotica perché la struttura sociale è ancora in dislivello e perché il sistema d'educazione cambia lentamente.

IL TERRORISMO

Il 1980 è stato chiamato dai magistrati di Roma, Genova, Milano e di altre città "l'anno dei terroristi pentiti". Sono convinti che dall '81 in poi questa improvvisa tendenza all'abbandono continuerà ad aiutarli a combattere il terrorismo. I brigatisti "pentiti" hanno indicato "covi", hanno fatto i nomi di "insospettabili" ed hanno anche rivelato gli autori di alcuni atroci delitti. È un fenomeno iniziato spontaneamente, in concomitanza con le prime sconfitte delle Brigate Rosse (BR), eppoi favorito da norme di legge.

Così da marzo dell '81 non sono più troppo misteriosi i volti di coloro che a sangue freddo una mattina uccisero il magistrato Alessandrini o il giornalista Casalegno.

I dati più recenti ci dicono che a Torino per esempio su 72 imputati rinviati a guidizio per appartenenza alle BR, 33 hanno confessato e anche aiutato i giudici. In tutta Italia si parla di duecento "pentiti" e difendere la lora vita è uno dei compiti più difficili e insieme più irrinunciabili. Forse la crisi politica, organizzativa e interna ha influito sulla capacità di attacco dei maggiori gruppi: gli attentati nel 1980 sono diminuiti del 61%. Per la prima volta da quando i terroristi hanno lanciato la loro sfida alle istituzioni si comincia a parlare di "cauto ottimismo".

Anche se i segni di crisi delle BR sono evidenti e anche se i terroristi stessi ammettono le difficoltà in cui funzionano, non si ha nessuna prova che il "progetto destabilizzante" sia stato sconfitto e certi aspetti più complessi, come i legami internazionali, rimangono misteriosi.

IL TERREMOTO DI NOVEMBRE 1980

Il terremoto del 23 novembre 1980, che ha lasciato circa 3,000 morti e 200,000 senza tetto e che ha azzerato una grande quantità di beni materiali, ha modificato profondamente l'economia italiana dei prossimi anni. Gli effetti sull'economia si sono già sentiti: interruzione di produzioni, difficoltà finanziarie, maggior prelievo fiscale e tagli sulla spesa pubblica incidono sulla gestione di molti servizi diretti ai cittadini, come ad esempio attraverso la riduzione dei bilanci operativi delle amminstrazioni pubbliche locali.

Non è esagerato parlare di interventi urgenti, come risorse reali destinate alla ricostruzione, dell'ordine del 3 - 4% del prodotto nazionale lordo. In altri termini, di tutta la nuova ricchezza prodotta in Italia nel 1981 tre-quattro lire ogni cento sono state destinate a compensare ciò che il terremoto ha distrutto. Nonostante la possibilità di "crescita zero" tecnicamente ed operativamente è possibile affrontare problemi di questo tipo se le risorse aumentano. Bisogna in realtà operare su due piani: quello della politica economica nazionale e quello dell'intervento urgente nelle aree terremotate con compiti organizzativi, di censimenti dei danni, di avvio di procedure sollecite di gestione della ricostruzione.

Sul piano del censimento dei danni e della progettazione per la ricostruzione si è fino ad oggi agito ancora troppo poco. Sono stati fatti dei tentativi, quali ad esempio quelli dell'affidamento agli enti locali di iniziative specifiche, anche gemellando regioni o comuni diversi, scelti tra le aree terremotate e le aree settentrionali o centrali del paese.

Molto più certa e definita è la situazione delle imprese industriali nelle zone terremotate. L'Istituto di Assistenza e Sviluppo del Mezzogiorno ha condotto con estrema rapidità una indagine sullo stato degli stabilimenti industriali dopo la castastrofe. Il 45% degli stabilimenti industriali, con il 49% dell' occupazione ha subito danni, ma tra essi non più di un sesto ha dovuto sospendere l'attività. Ciò significa che nelle zone colpite, tradizionalmente poco industrializzate o di recente industrializzazione, per fortuna non si è arrestato quello che può essere veramente il ganglio centrale della ricostruzione: la struttura produttiva industriale.

La Confindustria ha promesso un'agenzia per la ricostruzione industriale a doppio scopo: affrontare i problemi urgenti per i casi di maggior danneggiamento e contribuire a far nascere iniziative produttive industriali, di picole e medie dimensioni.

IL CIBO

Gli italiani hanno sempre dato molta importanza al cibo, al vino e ai piaceri della tavola. Hanno esportato molti loro piatti e gli italiani all'estero hanno contribuito alla loro confezione. Dal primo rinascimento hanno imposto il loro cibo con successo all'attenzione e nelle abitudini di milioni di stranieri. Molti di questi piatti sono gustosi e semplici e hanno un pizzico di fantasia.

Il necessario ma pesante intervento dell'industria nella preparazione dei cibi, i ritmi di vita cambiati, le abitudini urbane e sedentarie, l'impostazione di usanze e cibi stranieri sono i più vistosi fra i fattori che hanno mutato l'alimentazione degli italiani. Ancora oggi gli italiani danno un gran valore al mangiar bene ma i giovani, i più istruiti, ci tengono meno alla buona cucina.

LA FORMA FISICA

Si è creato negli ultimi anni in Italia il culto della forma fisica intesa come habitus di aspetto e prestazioni giovanili. Anticipato da ristrette èlite dell'etá classica e del rinascimento questo culto è nuovo in quanto è legato ai nuovi canoni estetici e ai nuovi criteri del rapporto sociale. Mantenersi in forma vuole dire stare in buona salute, essere gradevoli agli altri e poter agire con sicurezza. Il mito giovanile che ispira queste credenze concerne l'aspetto, la bellezza, come la socializzazione facile e disinvolta. In questo senso molti son conventi che si deve seguire i giovani negli interessi e nel modo di agire.

LA FAMIGLIA E LA RELIGIONE

La famiglia italiana in media consiste di 3,3 persone che è una dimunizione di quasi un percento dal 1946. Al tempo stess oche diminuisce la percentuale delle nascite e la coabitazione di un genitore superstite e i figli sposati continua a sparire.

La crisi della famiglia e quella della religione si rassomigliano per l'indebolimento dell'archetipo quale guardia di valori. La chiesa oggi non ha più una base sicura nella società italiana. Papa Giovanni XXIII partì da una visione di problemi non italiana ma aprì nuove prospettive nel mondo dei cattolici italiani. Il concilio che egli convocò mise in moto la libertà di discussione e l'accresciuta circolazione delle idee e degli scambi. Questa apertura accoppiata all'indebolimento nel modo di considerare certe credenze forse spiega perché, secondo un sondaggio Doxa, solo il 32% vanno in chiesa regolarmente.

L'EMIGRAZIONE

Insieme all'urbanesimo e al turismo l'emigrazione è una delle basi del rinnovamento sociale. Andando dalla campagna al paese e da nord a sud ha portato a un forte aumento nel numero degli abitanti di quello. Il dislivello nell'economia del paese è rispecchiato in questa forma interna dell'emigrazione; per esempio nel 1958 tanti operai andavano a nord quanti all'estero ma nel 1968, quando l'Italia aveva fatto dei grandi progressi economici, la maggior parte andava a nord. Con la formazione del Mercato Comune l'emigrazione in Francia declina mentre quella in Germania e in Svizzera aumenta. Questo fenomeno di emigrazione esterna rimane nel 1982 essenzialmente marginale perché molti degli operai vanno all'estero in base temporanea e tornano in patria per il lavoro stagionale.

LA TELEVISIONE

L'Italia vanta un numero di emittenti televisive fra i più alti del mondo. La primatizzazione dell'etere ha sancito il diritto dei cittadini al pluralismo dell'informazione. Questo progetto non conduce sempre a un dibattito più apertamente politico: le TV private si rassomigliano le une alle altre e tutte copiano la Rai.

La liberabizzazione di questo mass-medium, che connota in modo massiccio i nostri tempi rovesciando la tradizione della cultura alfabetica e determinando una nuova e allarmante qualità della vita, è stata riconosciuta in Italia da una sentenza della Corte costituzionale nel 1976. La sentenza ha stabilito l'uso privato dell'etere in ambito locale, confermando il monopolio pubblico su scala nazionale della Rai. In altri termini il pluralismo televisivo italiano dilata i contenuti dell'informazione e offre la legittimità di voci diverse benché le emittenti private non ne abbiano approfittato molto.

Le televisioni private milanesi sono state le prime ad uscire dalla dimensione locale, dando vita a veri e propri networks per la diffusione dei loro programmi nelle maggiori città. Se si considerano anche le stazioni straniere o quasi straniere si constata che l'offerta televisiva di stato (basata su tre reti) è soltanto una tra le tante componenti che riempiono il video degli italiani.

La maggior parte dei programmi verte sul ricupero di film e telefilm, tavole rotonde, rubriche di cucina, salute, astrologia e cronache locali.

Un altro motivo ricorrente delle TV private è il film pornografico, data nelle ore più tarde della serata; spesso si tratta di una pornografia goffa e ridanciana.

D'altra parte il ricupero di pellicole degli anni Trenta è culturalmente stimolante: la Roma sbiadita, piccolo-borghese, mite e decorosa dei film di Camerini e di Emmer, con Amedeo Nazzari e Anna Magnani, diventa un documento di un recente passato.

INTERPRETAZIONI DEL FASCISMO

L'approccio meno ideologico verso la cultura in genere si rispecchia anche nelle interpretazioni contemporanee del fascismo. Quelle in chiave ideologico-politiche lasciano insoddisfatti mentre le opere dall'estero hanno suscitato nuove possibilità di ricera: hanno richiamato l'attenzione sulle origini del regime e hanno proposto un confronto tra realtà dei singoli momenti e partiti fascisti.

L'aspetto forse più importante di questo nuovo indirizzo nello studio del fascismo è la tendenza a basare le ricerche sulle indagini archivistiche e il duplice sforzo di evitare ogni distacco del fenomeno dal contesto della realtà italiana e uno sforzo di vederlo come tutto uno nei suoi rapporti con la storia prefascista, postfascista e quella contemporanea.

COMMENTO

Per quanto riguarda il futuro del paese ogni italiano dovrà scegliere fra, o meglio saper fondere, il tradizionale el il nuovo in un mondo di profondi cambiamenti. Scrivono Acquaviva e Santuccio in *Social Structure in Italy:*

> It is still too early to say in what direction things are moving. What has been destroyed we know well enough; we know yesterday's world, and can look back on it with nostalgia or irritation, but the Italy of tomorrow is no more than a vague outline. (p. 115)

Fonti

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La España de Hoy

La Guerra Civil Española (1936-39) ha sido una de las guerras más comentadas en artículos y libros en muchísimos idiomas porque no sólo afectó a España sino también fue la oportunidad que buscaba Hitler para probar sus armamentos, tanques, y aviones contra los de sus futuros enemigos. Con la ayuda de los alemanes (y de otras fuerzas fascistas) Francisco Franco subió al poder en 1939 y "reinó" por casi cuarenta años hasta su muerte en 1975. En 1939¿ quién hubiera pensado que este general poco conocido iba a durar tantos años? La influencia franquista en la historia de España es enorme y aunque Franco murió hace casi seis años sigue desde su tumba en el Valle de los Caídos haciendo un papel en la vida política de la España actual.

No es la intención del autor repasar detalladamente los años franquistas; se han escrito muchos libros sobre el tema — libros a favor de Franco, otros en contra, y muchos "imparciales". Sin embargo, un corto resumen de los 40, 50, y 60 es necesario para entender los años postfranquistas.

Casi inmediatemente después del triunfo de Franco el mundo entró en la Segunda Guerra Mundial, y Franco, recordando la ayuda de Hitler, no entró en la guerra oficialmente pero sí mandó tropas para ayudar a los alemanes. Naturalmente, después de la guerra Estados Unidos, Inglaterra, Francia, y otros países intentaron aislar a España, esperando que esto causase la caída de Franco. Cuando vieron que este plan hizo sufrir mucho al pueblo español y que Franco había convencido a los españoles que el bloqueo era un ataque contra España y no contra él, los países democráticos empezaron a revisar su política hacia España. El comienzo de la guerra fría contra Rusia aceleró el cambio porque les interesaba a los países del oeste establecer amistades con todos los países anti-comunistas — aunque fuesen dictaduras fascistas. Por esto, el Presidente Eisenhower hizo una visita oficial a España y firmó un tratado de amistad que dio a España ayuda económica americana a cambio de bases militares en España para las fuerzas aéreas americanas. Para el Generalísimo Franco fue el triunfo que buscaba — ya era reconocido por los países más poderosos del mundo.

Con la ayuda americana y otros factores económicos muy positivos la economía de España se mejoró muchísimo. La década de los 60 fue la época del "boom" y Franco, aunque existían problemas crecientes, gozaba de un poder absoluto impresionante. Sin embargo, muchos preguntaban, ¿ después de Franco qué va a pasar? En 1969 Franco decidió nombrar a Juan Carlos de Borbón y Borbón (hijo de Don Juan cuyo padre, Alfonso XIII, fue el último rey de España) Príncipe de España, y con el título, futuro rey de España. Franco así restauró la monarquía.[1] Todos ya esperaban el momento de la transición de la época franquista a la monarquía y un gobierno que sería más representativo.

Los últimos años de Franco fueron difíciles porque la economía ya había bajado bastante; los problemas que existían en los 50 y 60 se habían agudizado; y la mala salud de Franco y el homicidio inesperado de su gran amigo y primer ministro, Carrero Blanco, causaron una especie de estancamiento en el gobierno. Era evidente que todos esperaban ya la transición.

El 20 de noviembre de 1975 falleció el que fuera España por casi cuarenta años, y Juan Carlos llegó a ser Juan Carlos I, Rey de España. Comenzó una etapa nueva en la larga y difícil historia de España.

El primer presidente del gobierno fue Arias Navarro, un hombre ya mayor y muy atado a los franquistas. Para el joven rey no era el hombre que necesitaba España para llevarla a la democracia. Cuando dimitió Arias, el Consejo del Reino mandó al Rey una terna para elegir el presidente. El Rey la rechazó, y en la segunda terna eligió a un hombre joven y desconocido, Adolfo Suárez. Le tocó a Suárez mandar en España durante una época en la que se escribió una constitución nueva, se formaron y legalizaron los partidos políticos (prohibidos en los años franquistas), y se eligieron diputados y senadores para Las Cortes (el parlamento) en forma democrática. Oficialmente el gobierno de Franco y las instituciones franquistas dejaron de existir. La transición fue rapidísima; bajo la dirección del Rey Juan Carlos I, Españo en pocos meses cambió de una dictadura a un país democrático. Vamos a analizar cómo este cambio tan dramático ha afectado la sociedad española de hoy.

LA POLITICA

Se ha escrito y se sigue escribiendo tomos sobre la política española de los 80. ¿Por qué no? Durante casi 40 años no se podía hablar abiertamente de partidos políticos ni de las filosofías de los de tendencias izquierdistas. Hay, desde luego, muchísimos partidos políticos en España hoy; pero en realidad hay sólo dos o tres principales. El partido que formó Suárez, La Unión del Centro Democrático (UCD) cuyo líder actual es Calvo Sotelo, representa "el centro' pero con tendencias hacia la derecha. La oposición más fuerte es el Partido Socialista (Partido Socialista Obrero Español o PSOE) cuyo líder es Felipe González. Muchos creen que tarde o temprano él será Presidente del gobierno español. Otro partido que cuenta es el Partido Comunista (PCE) con su jefe, ya bastante mayor, Santiago Carrillo. La legalización del partido comunista causó mucha consternación entre los militares y ex-franquistas, pero su influencia y poder han bajado en las últimas elecciones. Hay muchos otros partidos de derechas, de izquierdas, y regionales que sí tienen importancia hasta cierto punto (sobre todo los partidos regionales que cuentan en sus respectivas regiones), pero no tienen una base fuerte por todo el país. Cuentan a veces porque hoy en día ningún partido tiene la mayoría absoluta y es necesario pactar con estos partidos minoritarios para ganar el voto.

En febrero de 1981 un grupo de derechistas (la mayoría de la Guardia Civil, el cuerpo para-militar que apoyó tanto a Franco) encabezado por el Teniente Coronel Tejero intentó un golpe de estado. Entraron en las Cortes y después de hacer unas declaraciones, detuvieron a los diputados. Afortunadamente el Rey Juan Carlos, contando con la lealdad del ejército, salvó a la democracia y fueron arrestados todos los golpistas. Pero el fallido golpe indica lo frágil que es la democracia en España y la potencia de algunos militares y de otros todavía vinculados a los años franquistas.[2]

Unas semanas antes de la "intentona" Suárez dimitió y posteriormente Calvo Sotelo asumió el poder. El está luchando para mantener el orden público y buscar soluciones para unos problemas que están amenazando el futuro de España. También está intentando unir a las varias facciones de la UCD frente a las elecciones generales en 1983 (o antes si lo decide el Presidente).[3]

Uno de los problemas principales es el de las regiones, o como lo llaman en España, las comunidades autónomas. Bajo Franco hubo un centralismo increíble, y el Caudillo intentó apagar con represión los fuegos en las regiones españolas como el País Vasco, Cataluña, y Galicia. El suprimió sus idiomas, sus banderas, y toda manifestación de su "independencia." Aunque Franco gozó de un poder enorme y un control absoluto sobre el país, no llegó nunca a quitar el deseo de los vascos, los catalanes y los demás de mantener su cultura y de gozar de más autonomía.

Hoy todo esto ha cambiado mucho. Ya se permite el uso de idiomas regionales como el catalán y Euskera no sólo en situaciones sociales sino también en actos oficiales, y ya ondean la ikurriña (la bandera del país vasco) y la senyera (la bandera catalana) con la española. Ya hay gobiernos elegidos en Euzkadi (El país vasco) y en Cataluña y habrá otros en las otras regiones. Poco a poco el gobierno central está cediendo unos poderes a estos gobiernos regionales — el control de la educación y de la policía, por ejemplo. Pero, quieren más y lo quieren AHORA. ¿Qué es lo que quieren? ¿Quieren la autonomía total que sería la destrucción del estado español? Pues, sí, los hay que piensan así; pero hay muchos más que entienden que pueden existir el país y el gobierno central con una especie de autonomía semejante al sistema federal estadounidense. El gran problema del gobierno de Madrid es encontrar soluciones que puedan aceptar los pueblos de estas regiones y al mismo tiempo mantener el orden contra los ataques de grupos extremistas como ETA (Euskadi Ta Ascatasuna), una rama de la cual está luchando violentamente por la independencia total del país vasco; GRAPO (Grupos de Resistencia Antifascista Primero de Octubre), un grupo de terroristas izquierdistas; y otros grupos tanto de derechas como de izquierdas. Dentro de una preocupación bastante fuerte entre el pueblo español cabe una esperanza real como se veía en la manifestación prodemocrática después de la intentona de Tejero y otra contra el terrorismo cuando todo el país se paró por dos minutos para expresar su solidaridad anti-terrorista.

El Presidente del país, Leopoldo Calvo Sotelo, cree que el momento ha llegado para el ingreso de España en la OTAN y luego en la CEE (Comunidad Económica Europea o Mercado Común). Cree que así se va a fortelecer la democracia en España, dándole al ejército un papel menos político y más militar como lo tienen los ejércitos de los otros miembros de la OTAN.

El papel de la iglesia católica también ha cambiado a uno menos político y menos laico. Por ejemplo, en la nueva constitución no se declara que el catolicismo es la única religión del estado español y a pesar de la oposición de los cardenales, obispos, y demás clérigos Las Cortes aprobaron una ley de divorcio en la cual ya está legalizado el divorcio.

Que las instituciones políticas en España han cambiado mucho y a un ritmo increíblemente rápido no cabe duda. Que un país, con una historia de repúblicas fracasadas, después de aguantar cuarenta años de un gobierno totalitario pueda en seis años establecer y mantener un gobierno democrático es casi un milagro y el pueblo español lo reconoce y va a seguir luchando contra las fuerzas antidemocráticas.

LA ENSEÑANZA

Como en la mayoría de las dictaduras, la enseñanza en los años franquistas servía para mantener el status quo de las instituciones de aquella época. El apoyo a la enseñanza pública casi no existía y la iglesia católica que apoyó a Franco (con unas pocas excepciones) tenía la responsabilidad principal de mantener las escuelas, sobre todo, elementales y de educar a la juventud española. Poco a poco esto va cambiando y hoy en día hay más escuelas públicas aunque el país todavía carece de plazas escolares suficientes en estas escuelas, y la calidad de la enseñanza en muchas es bastante inferior a la de las privadas.

Ha habido varias reformas en el sistema educativo en España en las últimas décadas. El sistema vigente hoy es bastante semejante al americano. Hay ocho años de E.G.B. (Educación General Básica) seguidos por tres de B.U.P. (Bachillerato Unificado y Polivalente) y por fin un año de C.O.U. (Curso de Orientación Universitaria) para los que piensan ingresar en la universidad. Para los demás hay ramas especiales para prepararles para una carrera no universitaria. Luego, hay clases universitarias y de B.U.P. para mayores de 25 años que han dejado de estudiar y que quieren volver a sus estudios muchas veces mientras siguen trabajando.

La materia que se enseña y la forma de enseñar, sobre todo, en los cursos pre-universitarios han cambiado bastante en los últimos años. Ya casi han desaparecido las clases sobre "la formación de espíritu nacional" (que no era más que propaganda franquista); no hay censura de profesores y de libros como en los años franquistas;[4] hay muchas escuelas mixtas; hay escuelas en las regiones donde el idioma de enseñanza puede ser el catalán o el vascuence (en el País Vasco estas escuelas se llaman "ikastolas"); y hay, en general, una liberalización en la enseñanza.

Las universidades españolas, sitios muy conflictivos y por eso muchas veces cerradas en la época franquista, ya han vuelto a la normalidad y se parecen más a las universidades europeas, es decir, mucho más politizadas que las americanas, pero también centros de estudios serios. Ahora hay selectividad en las universidades, pero no excluye a muchos. Las universidades principales siguen siendo públicas aunque existen algunas privadas; la mayoría de las cuales pertenecen a la iglesia católica (por ejemplo, La Universidad de Navarra y la Universidad de Deusto). La Complutense de Madrid sigue siendo la más grande con más de 150.000 estudiantes matriculados y la de Salamanca, una de las más antiguas del mundo, mantiene su fama internacional. Recientemente bajo la dirección de Raúl Morodo, la Universidad de Menéndez y Pelayo en Santander ha iniciado un programa de estudios internacionales en verano que ha atraído a profesores y estudiantes de muchos países.

Muchos estudiantes españoles, como los estudiantes de muchos países del mundo, están estudiando en el extranjero en programas de verano o durante el año escolar. En 1979 el gobierno de España decidió convalidar las asignaturas del COU tomadas en una escuela secundaria en EE.UU. Durante el primer año (es decir, 1979-80) 35 estudiantes españoles completaron su año de COU en EE.UU. y en 1981-82 más de 100 han venido a cursar el COU aquí.

Hay un movimiento en España para reformar los estudios universitarios, pero la tradición en las universidades españolas es fuerte y aunque han cambiado en ciertos aspectos (por ejemplo, la selectividad y el número de mujeres estudiando carreras como medicina e ingeniería) es difícil que haya cambios radicales en los próximos años.

LA ECONOMIA

La economía bajo Franco era una mezcla curiosa de una especie de socialismo y capitalismo, los dos totalmente controlados por el gobierno central. Como hemos visto, en los años 40 y 50 la economía sufría de una falta de capital debido principalmente a la falta de ayuda extranjera (el Plan Marshall no llegó a España) y al bloqueo. Luego, en los 60 hubo un mejoramiento drástico y España gozaba de un mínimo de inflación, el ingreso de capital extranjero, la construcción de muchas fábricas, y el incremento impresionante de turismo.

A pesar de esta subida en los 60 y los tres primeros años de los 70 cuando España gozó de sus mayores tasas de crecimiento, España, como muchos países occidentales, sufrió una bajada bastante grave a finales de 1973 y en los años siguientes. La subida del precio del petróleo afectó mucho a la economía española. Luego, el número de obreros españoles trabajando en el extranjero (que suelen mandar una buena parte de sus sueldos a España) disminuyó causando una bajada de ingresos de capital extranjero y una subida del desempleo. La inflación, un problema mundial en los últimos años, lo es también en España. Junto con estos problemas, la mayoría de los cuales no pueden ser controlados por España, existe el de los sindicatos y la legalización de las huelgas, antes prohibidas por Franco. El número de horas perdidas debido a huelgas ha sido grande, pero parece que los sindicatos ya están moderando algo sus demandas y que el año 1982 será un año de menos huelgas y conflictos laborales.

Hay señales que indican que la situación económica ya ha llegado a su punto más bajo y que está poco a poco subiendo. La inflación para el año 1981 puede moderarse; el turismo, aunque no ha vuelto a las alturas de los 60, es bastante estable; y compañías extranjeras, como la General Motors, están invirtiendo otra vez en España. También han liberalizado las normas dejando a la banca extranjera, por primera vez en muchos años, entrar en España. La peseta sigue siendo una divisa bastante fuerte y si entra España en la CEE, seguramente su divisa se quedará más vinculada a las otras divisas europeas.

El pronóstico para el futuro es positivo aunque la inflación y el paro, no sólo entre la clase obrera sino tembién entre los licenciados, siguen siendo problemas importantes que el gobierno actual, si quiere seguir en el poder, tendrá que resolver.

LAS ARTES

El cine y el teatro, totalmente controlados bajo el regimen franquista, y están gozando de una libertad total. Es cierto que las películas extranjeras siguen siendo la mayoría de las películas estrenadas en España, pero han salido en los últimos años filmes españoles muy interesantes. Un director, Carlos Saura, ya tiene mucha fama no sólo en España sino tamblién en el extranjero. Su película, "Cría" (que en España se titula "Cría Cuervos"), ha gozado de un éxito mundial. Los temas que antes no eran nada controvertidos ya tocan problemas sociales como, por ejemplo, la delicuencia juvenil ("Deprisa, deprisa"), el fascismo ("Camada Negra"), el divorcio ("El divorcio que viene"), y otros temas semejantes.

El teatro, por razones económicas, no ha cambiado tanto. Siguen poniendo revistas musicales (aunque ahora con mucho destape o desnudismo) y siguen representando las obras clásicas de siempre. También hay obras extranjeras traducidas al español (por ejemplo, "Evita" y "Equus"). De vez en cuando sale una obra del franquista Alfonso Paso, y casi nunca una obra de Alfonso Sastre. En el año 1981 tuvo mucho éxito "La velada en Benicarló" de Manuel Azaña, el último presidente de la segunda república. Buero Vallejo sigue estrenando aunque en la temporada 1980-81 no estrenó una obra y durante la temporada anterior la obra suya duró muy poco en el escenario. En septiembre del 81 se estrenó su obra nueva, "Caimán."

Quizás la figura más importante en el teatro actual es Antonio Gala, el dramaturgo y periodista cordobés, que es conocido aquí principalmente por su obra, "Anillos para una dama". Durante la temporada 1979-80 estrenó "Petra Regalada", un éxito sensacional, y en 1980-81 "La vieja señorita del paraíso", también con mucho éxito y buena crítica. Sus obras son ataques sociales muy sutiles y el lenguaje as casi poético. Gala también escribe in EL PAIS y acaba de ser publicada una colección de sus artículos bajo el título de *Charlas con Troylo* (Troylo es o, mejor dicho, era su perro). Otras obras teatrales de Gala incluyen "Los verdes campos del Eden" (Premio Nacional del Teatro 1963), "Los buenos días perdidos," y "Las cítaras colgadas de los árboles."

Con la creciente popularidad de los idiomas regionales ha crecido también la aceptación de cantantes que cantan en catalán, valenciano, mallorquín, vascuence, y gallego. Estos cantantes son principalmente cantantes de música folklórica. En los años franquistas sus actuaciones estaban prohibidas o eran suspendidas a medio concierto, pero hoy en día gozan de muchos "fans" y sus conciertos en las grandes capitales tienen mucho éxito. Entre estos cantantes destacan María del Mar Bonet (mallorquina), Joan Manuel Serrat (catalán), y Luis Llach (también catalán).

En la música "pop" tenemos los cantantes y grupos que suelen atraer a las quinceañeras. Siguen vendiendo muchos elepés los grupos extranjeros. Entre los cantantes y grupos españoles están Miguel Bosé (hijo del famoso torero de la era franquista, Luis Miguel Dominguín), "Tequila," "Cadillac," "Los Pecos," "Mamá," "La orquesta Mondragón," y el cantante de fama mundial, Julio Iglesias.

Con el fin de la censura de prensa han salido muchas publicaciones nuevas, algunas de las cuales son de muy buena calidad. EL PAIS, que salió por primera vez el 4 de mayo de 1976, es, tal vez, el periódico más importante en España. Es bastante liberal y da amplio espacio a las noticias extranjeras. Siguen publicándose el venerable ABC y el YA, y los de derechas publican EL ALCAZAR; pero EL PAIS es el que tiene la tirada más grande y es el diario más citado en el extranjero. El Director, Juan Luis Cebrián, es una figura muy conocida y respetada; en 1980 fue a Nueva York a aceptar el honor que le otorgaron como el mejor director internacional del año.

Para ver la diferencia entre la época franquista y la de hoy uno sólo tiene que pasar por un kiosco a ver las revistas en venta. Hay un montón de ellas con chicas medio desnudas o totalmente sin ropa — lo que llamaríamos "pornografía blanda". Las hay también bastante pornográficas. Pero como suele suceder, la popularidad de estas revistas ha bajado ya que el pueblo está acostumbrado a la falta de censura.

Han salido unas revistas serias como CAMBIO 16 (el primer número salió en 1971), CUADERNOS PARA EL DIALOGO, LA CALLE, y SABADO GRAFICO. Estas revistas tratan de temas bastante serios — la mayoría de ellos temas sociales o políticos. Una revista, INTERVIU, que tiene una tirada muy grande, es una combinación de artículos algo serios y de destape femenino. De cotilleo hay muchas como HOLA y DIEZ MINUTOS. Cada año hay revistas nuevas y otras que dejan de publicarse por razones económicas, pero las citadas aquí ya llevan algunos años de publicación y parece que seguirán publicándose.

Hay que mencionar también que el idioma español va cambiando en España. El uso de "usted" va disminuyendo; muchos verbos ya se emplean como reflexivos (esperar, saber, etc.); la segunda persona singular del pretérito suele terminar en "s", sobre todo en la lengua hablada; y la variedad de palabras y expresiones recientes ha enriquecido mucho el idioma (véase la lista en el apéndice).

LA GENERACION POSTFRANQUISTA Y EL FUTURO

Si la guerra civil española terminó en el 39, un español hoy deberá tener más o menos cincuenta años para poder recordarla. Así es que para los jóvenes de hoy la guerra representa algo de la historia y dicen que solamente los "carrozas" (los viejos) hablan de aquella época.

La vida entre los jóvenes es muy diferente de la de sus padres. McDonald's, Burger King, y Wendy's, los "fast food" ya han abierto restaurantes en Madrid, Barcelona, y otras ciudades principalmente en las costas y han tenido bastante éxito entre los jóvenes. Cadenas españolas como Topics y Vips, también de este estilo, atraen al público más bien jóven. Sus menús con platos combinados y sandwiches representan un nuevo estilo de comida para los españoles.

Los jóvenes de hoy se reunen en grupos en estos sitios de "fast food", en discotecas, o en los bares; van mucho al cine; no van a los toros; y prefieren participar en los deportes como baloncesto y tenis en vez de ser espectadores en un partido de fútbol.

La juventud española ha cambiado mucho debido a muchos factores. Primero, no sólo no se sienten vinculados al pasado sino que se sienten totalmente libres del pasado y quieren vivir en *su* España, no en la de la generación anterior. Segundo, no están afectados por una censura que dejó al pueblo medio informado y bastante aislado del resto del mundo. Estos jóvenes tienen oportunidades de viajar al extranjero o si no, al menos pueden leer periódicos, revistas, y noticias del extranjero. Tercero, la mayoría vive mejor y no tiene que sufrir lo que sufrieron sus padres. Y por fin, sí se sienten españoles pero también se sienten europeos iguales a los demás jóvenes de Francia o de Alemania. Al contrario de sus padres, no tienen que buscar excusas para explicar su forma de gobierno; viven en un país democrático bajo un gobierno dedicado a llevar a España a la altura de los demás países de la CEE, y están convencidos que o han llegado o van a llegar dentro de poco.

CONCLUSION

España sigue siendo un país muy variado — un país relativamente pequeño pero con unas diferencias enormes entre sus regiones. Sigue siendo el país de la cena a las 10 de la noche, un país muy católico, un país donde "el enchufe" es importante y donde la influencia de personas "importantes" es indispensable, un país de gente orgullosa e individualista, la siesta todavía existe en muchas casas, y "vuelva Vd. mañana" es una frase muy corriente en establecimientos comerciales. Es un país donde muchos añoran los años franquistas, sobre todo cuando actúan los grupos terroristas. Y sí, es un país con un gobierno que está constantemente amenazado —en cualquier momento puede que haya otra "intentona" al estilo de Tejero.

Sin embargo, tiene que ser un país optimista porque la democracia ha durado cinco años y pico y han sido años difíciles — pero lo importante es que ha durado. Además la economía mejorará indudablemente en los años próximos. No cabe duda que la mayoría, a pesar de la frase "con Franco vivíamos mejor", vive mejor ahora no sólo económicamente sino aún más importante espiritualmente. Que España tiene problemas serios no cabe duda. Algunos han sido enumerados en este papel. A pesar de ellos, el que escribe cree en un futuro positivo para España porque cree que el pueblo español está preparado para enfrentarse con estos problemas, la mayoría de ellos de la época franquista, y paulatinamente encontrará soluciones. El pueblo cree en *su* democracia y está dispuesto a luchar por ella.

Notas

1. Técnicamente fue una instauración porque una restauración de la monarquía hubiera requerido el nombramiento de Don Juan, el heredero del trono de su padre.
2. Es interesante notar que el Señor Tejero y los demás implicados en la intentiona todavía no han sido procesados. Se ha aplazado el juicio por razones desconocidas.
3. El reciente abandono de unos 15 diputados liberales del partido ucedista ha creado una crisis que puede o hacer caer al gobierno o arruinar totalmente el partido.
4. Acaba de abrirse una biblioteca muy interesante en la calle Capitán Haya en Madrid. Contiene todos los libros publicados en España durante los años franquistas — tanto los que pasaron la censura como los que no se podían publicar. Todas las editoriales tenían la obligación de someter todos los libros que querían publicar a la censura y se quedaron almacenados en el Ministerio de Información y Cultura.

Apendice

Unas expresiones típicas de hoy

hacerse el sueco — hacerse el distraído
estar hecho polvo — estar cansado
lo veo en globo — difícil de conseguir
hacer el indio — hacer el tonto
estar hasta la boina — estar harto

cachondo — gracioso
pirado — loco
madero — policiá nacional
besugo — tonto
pasta — dinero
tío — (nombre utilizado para amigos, por ej., "¿Qué pasa contigo, tío?")
macarra — persona sin gusto
vete a paseo — lárgate
ligón — uno con muchos amores
está en el quinto pino — está muy lejos
está hecho un pájaro — astuto
es un lanzado — es una persona muy poco tímida
pijo — tonto
paleto — un pueblerino, o sea, un inocente del pueblo
está más sordo que una tapia — no oye nada
usa gafas culo-vaso—ve muy mal
maciza — una chica muy sexy
es más bruto que un arado — es muy bestia
pasota — uno que pasa de todo
facha — neo-fascista
armar follón — empezar un tumulto
no veo tres en un burro — no veo nada
chaquetero — uno que cambia de pensamiento muy rápidamente
estar de mala uva — estar de mal humor
flipado — drogado
hacer una burrada — hacer algo mal
destape — desnudez
carroza — una persona ya mayor
darle a uno un pronto — ponerse en marcha rápidamente
esto es del año de la pera — es muy antiguo
pela — peseta

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La Cultura Contemporánea de Hispanoamérica

Es ya un lugar común decir que sufrimos en nuestro país de una incomprensión radical de lo que es Hispanoamérica. Todos, en nuestros viajes, hemos visto crasas muestras del jingoísmo o la insensibilidad de algunos compatriotas nuestros. Pero la situación es realmente más grave; nuestra cultura está plagada de una serie de actitudes y creencias que contribuyen a fomentar una visión falsa y dañina de las realidades hispanoamericanas. (Claro está que hay que decir realidades, porque una de las falsedades más absurdas es la noción de que hay una especie de continente y medio absolutamente igual, desde el Río Bravo hasta Patagonia.) Todos hemos visto los denigrantes Tío Taco, Frito Bandito (sic) y demás fealdades por el estilo. Nuestro cine y nuestra televisión añaden al problema con su presentación casi rutinaria del hispanoamericano: el ser indolente tropical, hamacado por las brisas de su paraíso del Caribe, o el ser indolente sesteando ocultado por su gran sombrero en el desierto que también se extiende desde el Bravo hasta Tierra del Fuego. Ni hablar de la televisión y el cine hispanos, que son en el mejor de los casos una endeble imitación de sus modelos norteamericanos, y que refuerzan el mismo tipo de pintoresquismo barato.

De lo que a veces no nos damos cuenta es de que existen visiones estereotipadas más alla del Bravo también. Todos nos reímos de la vieja leyenda de las calles pavimentadas de oro que atrajo a nuestros antepasados — todos inmigrantes — a este país, pero algo muy parecido es lo que persiguen los miles de hispanos, haitianos, vietnameses, etc., que diariamente buscan en Estados Unidos una salida a la pobreza y la miseria que son el único porvenir que les espera en su país de origen. Pero hay otros estereotipos tan extendidos en Hispanoamérica, por ejemplo la creencia de que en Estados Unidos los hombres estamos dominados por nuestras mujeres. Para muchos latinos, la mayor libertad de la cual goza la mujer norteamricana es reflejo de una debilidad masculina. Esta visión la podemos explicar fácilmente en términos de la cultura hispánica y su carácter machista, pero tal explicación no la hace ni menos ofensiva ni menos parcial. Se podrá argüir que tales exageraciones están desapareciendo, pero siguen vigentes todavía, y son síntomas de una incomprensión radical y peligrosa.

EL PUEBLO

Nada más falso que la creencia de que todos los hispanos son indios; igualmente falsa la extendida creencia de que la llamada cuestión indígena está resuelta. Hay una enorme variedad étnica de país en país. En algunos países, como Costa Rica, apenas hay indios, y la población es de origen casi enteramente europeo. En México, Guatemala, el Perú y varios más la población indígena y mestiza es muchas veces mayor que la blanca, y nadie sabe realmente cuáles puedan ser las cifras más o menos exactas. Esto ha influido mayormente en el desarrollo social; donde más indios, mayor explotación colonialista y una marcada concentración de la tierra y el poder socioeconómico en manos de una reducida minoría blanca y a veces mestiza. La tradición social hispanoamericana ve al indio como mano de obra y como carne de cañón; también se le ve como estorbo al progreso (léase desarrollo económico a favor de la clase dirigente). El resultado es la continuación de una triste historia; donde hace tres cuartos de siglo Porfirio Díaz pudo mandar asesinar al pueblo de Tomochic o hacer que el rebelde pueblo yaqui fuera transportado a través de todo México a una nueva región donde más fácilmente se les podría controlar, en pleno 1981 en varios países, y con el apoyo semioficial del gobierno federal, se está llevando a cabo un verdadero genocidio con el propósito de quitarles a los indios sus tierras y repartírselas a los blancos. Como se ve, el llamado problema indígena es más bien un problema económico, de la desigual distribución de la tierra y del dinero y poder político.

Al mismo tiempo que se lleva a cabo esta campaña, en varios países, y notablemente México, hay una mayor insistencia en el pasado indígena y su relación con el presente. No sólo son orgullosos de tener un pasado indígena esplendoroso, están conscientes de que este pasado vive todavía en los museos, en el estilo arquitectónico que les rodea, y — mucho más importante — en formas de vivir cotidiano. El indio es un elemento siempre presente, no solo étnica sino psicológicamente, y se están realizando esfuerzos gigantescos por poder comprender las estructuras del pensamiento indígena y su relación dialéctica con la cultura semioficial.

Entre los factores que modifican este panorama se halla la inmigración más reciente, que ha sido mucho más compleja de lo que se reconoce, y que viene contribuyendo de una forma importante al desarrollo de la sociedad actual. En la Argentina, por ejemplo, el movimiento sindical de comienzos de siglo tomó su eventual forma cuasi-anarquista gracias en gran medida a la influencia de los inmigrantes italianos, que después fueron decisivos en el peronismo. Todavía en el barrio bonaerense de la Boca se ve esta influencia. Ha habido una enorme contribución cultural de los inmigrantes: los mejores dramaturgos argentinos actuales se llaman Cossa, Monti, Dragún, Pavlovsky, al lado de un Gorostiza; también abundan los generales y presidentes de la república de antecedentes italianos. Pero estos son ejemplos más o menos conocidos. Cuántos saben de la existencia hoy día de colonias numerosas de japoneses, de suecos, de alemanes, de mormones y de descendientes de los confederados de nuestra Guerra de la Secesión? O de los colonos judíos que llegaron por miles huyendo de la represión europea? En estos días se está ventilando el caso de un distinguido empresario argentino, dueño de un periódico importante, que fue encarcelado y torturado según él como muestra del antisemitismo oficial argentino. El caso es complicado, pero el debate alrededor del episodio demuestra las complicaciones que persisten para los inmigrantes, algunos de los cuales llevan ya varias generaciones en América. Vale la pena insistir en la importancia de la literatura actual para subrayar estos elementos; en las novelas de un

Vargas Llosa o de un Jacobo Lerner, sabemos del papel que juegan en la vida cotidiana.

Hay otros inmigrantes, los no-voluntarios: los esclavos. Hace tiempo que se abolió la esclavitud, pero la situación socioeconómica de los descendientes de esclavos no ha mejorado. Su problema, como el de los indios, es esencialmente económico. También han hecho una contribución importante a la cultura: al lado de escritores como Nicolás Guillén, entre muchos, tenemos la música del Caribe, de la costa veracruzana o de la franja norte de Venezuela y Colombia, así como en la franja sur de Estados Unidos contribuyeron a la formación de la música típica y original de este país. Hay además una compenetración psicológica que influye en el diario vivir, y que se entiende muy poco. Por otro lado, si hay poblados indios que existen aislados, fuera de todo contacto con la cultura dominante, ¿ cuántos saben de las colonias de costumbres africanas, formadas por esclavos y descendientes de esclavos, cimarrones que se colaron al interior de la América del Sur y allá volvieron a adoptar formas de vivir africanas? A veces cuestiones de este tipo cobran importancia inesperada, como es el caso de Bluefields, ciudad nicaragüense de habla inglesa y población de origen africano, que se obstina en ignorar todo contacto con el gobierno federal. Es imposible considerar el caso de la independencia de Belize sin tomar en cuenta consideraciones relacionadas. No existe la América Hispana de los estereotipos; al contrario, sí existe una serie de realidades vitales y complicadas.

ESTRUCTURAS SOCIALES: LA ENTRADA AL SIGLO XX

Quizá el hecho más impresionante y más temible de la América Latina actual sea la rapidez y la profundidad del cambio de sus formas demográficas, económicas y sociales tradicionales. En un mundo en el cual casi no se puede existir fuera de contacto con el mundo internacional, aun cuando el contacto sea muy parcial o imperfecto, no hay capa social que no busque una vida mejor. Se creen todos con el derecho de vivir en el siglo XX, de gozar de sus bienes materiales, y quieren hacerlo ya de una vez. Y un dato amenazador: en 1949 la capital de México tuvo algo más de dos millones de habitantes; en 1981 nadie sabe exactamente cuántos hay, pero serán más de trece millones, quizá unos millones o más. ¿ Qué ha provocado esta explosión? En primer lugar, la natalidad hispanoamericana sigue siendo de las más altas del mundo. En términos generales, Hispanoamérica está camino de una superpoblación que amenaza con arrasar toda posibilidad de alimentar a la población. Para tomar un ejemplo, México, a pesar de su extensión geográfica, tiene una muy limitada posibilidad agrícola; la superficie arable equivale sólo a más o menos el 17% de la superficie total. Mientras sigue creciendo la población, bajo la influencia de presiones tanto religiosas como sociales, el país se acerca al hambre masiva. Otro ejemplo: Puerto Rico es una isla de tamaño muy reducido, y también tiene un problema de superpoblación actual y una natalidad elevada. Simplemente no está en condiciones de alimentar a toda su gente. En los dos casos se están haciendo esfuerzos notables, casi siempre en términos de industrialización, pero se está perdiendo cada vez más terreno. Por otra parte, mientras más se haga a favor de los que viven en las zonas urbanas, donde se lleva a cabo este tipo de esfuerzo, más gentes llegan de las zonas rurales, por la sencilla razón de que creen que por mal que se viva en la ciudad, peor se vivía en el campo. El resultado se puede llamar de varias maneras en distintos países: colonia proletaria, paracaidistas, villa miseria, callampa, favela. Son la misma cosa: el resultado del abandono del campo y de las tradicionales formas de vivir frente a la atracción, falsa o verdadera, de una mejor vida en la gran ciudad.

Salta a la vista que uno de los requisitos para remediar en alguna medida esta situación es el control de la natalidad. Pero hay poderosas razones en contra: además de la oposición de la Iglesia, existen la creencia tradicional de que más hijos significan más manos para trabajar, la actitud popular de que muchos hijos prueban la virilidad del progenitor, y una arraigada desconfianza de todo programa federal. En algunos sectores radicales no se cree en la necesidad de controlar la natalidad, que les parece parte de una conspiración capitalista y racista. Más bien creen que la repartición de los bienes y el dinero evitaría el problema. Consta que los que así piensan forman una minoría más bien ilusa.

El resultado del problema de la población es, en el plano psicológico, una gran desmoralización y la destrucción del sistema social, y en el plano concreto, la emigración. Todos conocemos la historia de la emigración puertorriqueña; en México se comenta irónicamente pero con mucha razón que el producto nacional que más se exporta son gentes. El movimiento es calamitoso, tanto para la economía de los estados que reciben la emigración, como para el estado moral y psicológico de los que tienen que expatriarse. Es denigrante, humillante, tener que abandonar la tierra y luego de llegar al país soñado, sufrir la discriminación. Históricamente, por supuesto, esto pasa en Estados Unidos a lo menos desde mediados del siglo pasado, y ha habido siempre una fuerte discriminación contra los más recién llegados. Todos recordamos los infames apodos étnicos que se les pegaban a los nuevos: irlandeses, polacos, judìos, italianos, escandinavos, lo que fueran. A estas alturas estamos bastante revueltos, pero habrá que ver si este proceso resulta cierto también cuando se trata de unos pueblos a veces algo diferentes de tez. Obviamente, hasta la fecha no ha funcionado asì con los ex-esclavos americanos. Si debieta realizarse un mestizaje en masa es, por supuesto, otro tema por completo.

Todos conocemos los problemos de pobreza y discriminación que sufren los inmigrantes, pero no se puede exagerar el problema de la destrucción de formas tradicionales, aquí o en la metrópoli latina. La vida en Buenos Aires o en México es, en muchos sentidos, más parecida a la vida de New York que a la de la zona rural argentina o mexicana, y las presiones sobre la familia son enormes. Para todos están pasando graves cambios de tipo social — las relaciones entre hombre y mujer o entre las generaciones de una misma familia, por ejemplo — debido en muchos casos al intento de seguir el modelo norteamericano, pero para los más humildes, frecuentemente los más apegados a las costumbres tradicionales, el cambio es brusco y suele ser destructivo. Sin formar parte de la sociedad que les rodea, son víctimas de sus presiones.

LAS INSTITUCIONES Y EL CAMBIO

Frente a todos estos problemas, no hay cambio más drástico ni más sorprendente que el de la Iglesia Católica. Históricamente aliada con los grupos que controlaban el poder — los militares y las élites económicas —, la Iglesia de hoy está en una gran convulsión. Retiene por supuesto muchos elementos conservadores, pero hay sacerdotes y monjas que están en la vanguardia de la lucha por la revindicación de los oprimidos y los desventajados. Frecuentemente las voces más eficaces en contra de los abusos políticos son las de miembros de la jerarquía eclesiástica, notablemente Helder Câmara del Brasil. Esto no ha pasado sin ocasionar una resistencia interna, la que dura todavía en muchos países. Los esfuerzos por dejar entrar un poco de luz y aire nuevo se ven en el caso Lemercier, donde un abad que abogaba por el psicoanálisis como medio de combatir los problemas de la vida monástica fue duramente censurado, o en el caso de Ivan Illich, distinguido pensador de renombre internacional cuyos libros le valieron semejantes dificultades.

Todo esto ha conducido a la erosión de la alianza tradicional ya mencionada, y las tensiones entre militares y religiosos se notan en los casos cada día más frecuentes de allanamiento de iglesias, asesinatos de religiosos, etc. Pero las presiones actuales han producido cismas también dentro del establecimiento militar, aunque en medida muy inferior. En algunos países. notablemente el Perú, hubo tentativas de emplear el tradicional golpe de estado para reemplazar a gobiernos civiles vistos por los militares como demasiado corrompidos o demasiado ineptos para resolver problemas sociales. En la mayoría de los casos, tales esfuerzos han resultado infructuosos. Lo más común, casi diario, es el golpe que derroca un gobierno legal moderado a favor de una dictadura militar de derechas. Desde la Segunda Guerra, la lista es larga y deprimente: Chile, la Argentina, el Uruguay, el Brasil, todos países de tradición democrática más o menos larga, y Colombia y Venezuela, dos países que lograron derrocar las tiranías. Siempre estos golpes se llevan a cabo a nombre de las instituciones democráticas, y frecuentemente los líderes se consideran los únicos verdaderos representantes de la tradición conservadora que tanto admiran. En este sentido están actuando auténticamente. Pero siempre se institucionalizan sus revoluciones, e imponen medidas excesivamente represivas. Hay otros países donde la fragilidad de los gobiernos es ya casi legendaria, y donde tales movimientos representan realmente luchas entre ciertos grupos históricamente privilegiados.

Frente a tal panorama y a la miseria que caracteriza la vida de enormes masas de hispanoamericanos, no debiera sorprenderle a nadie la inquietud política en casi todo el hemisferio. No todos los movimientos pueden caber en el mismo saco, pero tienen por lo menos eso en común. El caso más notable, por supuesto, es el cubano, donde una dictadura militar fue derrocada por un levantamiento que fue, en sus orígenes, de índole democrática. Después este movimiento ha evolucionado en otro sentido, lo cual no contradice la naturaleza represiva del gobierno anterior. El panorama típico actual es de movimientos revolucionarios, frecuentemente varios en el mismo país, frente a gobiernos dedicados tercamente a aplastar toda posibilidad de reformas. Como estamos presenciando en El Salvador, se está polarizando cada día más; los dos grupos se están apartando y el gobierno, que intenta mediar entre las dos fuerzas opuestas, es casi impotente. Entre tanto, los que más sufren son los pobres urbanos y rurales.

Esta polarización se relaciona sin duda alguna con la percepción que tienen los hispanoamericanos de nuestro país y de nuestra declarada misión política de parar en seco y hasta de echar atrás el supuesto avance del comunismo en el hemisferio americano. Así como es difícil para nosotros percibir de forma global la compleja realidad del mundo hispanoamericano, resulta difícil para ellos comprendernos a nosotros. Se nos percibe como un país que alaba los derechos civiles mientras ayuda a los dictadores internacionales y a muchos de nuestros ciudadanos les quita sus derechos por razones de raza. Del mismo modo se recuerda nuestro apoyo pasado a dictadores y nuestra intervención armada en diversos países latinos para respaldar lo que percibíamos como legítimos intereses económicos y lo que allá se percibía como desvergonzado imperialismo político y económico. Por supuesto, en la mayoría de los países hispanoamericanos se ignora el verdadero progreso que estamos haciendo para remediar algunos de nuestro problemas, y se hace caso omiso de problemas muy parecidos que tienen ellos. Pero hay que recordar que la amenaza del comunismo internacional, por verdadera que nos parezca, es, para la mayoría de los hispanoamericanos, un peligro muy remoto. O como reza un refrán mexicano, "Ay, pobre de México, tan lejos de Dios y tan cerca de Estados Unidos". Donde hace veinte años representábamos la Política del Bueno Vecino, representamos ahora Viet Nam y Playa Girón.

Huelga decir que estas percepciones son tan superficiales como nuestra visión del hispano tropical. No se puede reducir a tales generalidades una realidad tan vasta y compleja como la nuestra. No obstante, hay que reconocer también que nuestra política oficial está hablando de volver a trabar amistad con una serie de dictadores militares cuya historia de represión es larga y triste. Tales acciones no pueden sino reforzar la imagen tan extendida de un país sin más intereses que su propia voracidad. Obviamente no pueden sino acarrearnos más enemigos. Es igualmente obvio que responden a una visión tergiversada de Hispanoamérica.

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Methodology and Evaluation

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Merging Methods and Texts: A Pragmatic Approach

INTRODUCTION

In terms of curriculum, the textbook which has been placed in the teacher's —and the students' — hands has a tremendous and pervasive influence upon what happens daily, even hourly, in the classroom. The text reflects, and all too often directs, the goals of the course, and it determines the language content which will be predominant. In many instances, the methodology espoused by the teacher is the one proposed by the text. This situation works well when the match is compatible with the ways, wants, and needs of teacher, students, and program. Such a perfect combination is rare, and more commonly it becomes the perogative — indeed the duty — of teachers to adapt that material in terms of methods more conducive to teaching and learning in their particular classrooms.

THE PROPER ROLE OF THE TEXTBOOK

Textbooks are written for a mass market, and they are intentionally designed to encompass a range of ages, abilities, interests, and social backgrounds, Their major strengths lie in the definition and sequencing of a language content upon which skills may be developed. They contribute dialogues, reading selections, visual elements, cultural information; they order and explain grammatical constructions and provide practice exercise; they identify vocabulary of high frequency and arrange it in thematic groupings. In general, a four-skills program is developed, although specific skills may be emphasized. Most text series today integrate the culture with the skill content, although some still treat it as an addendum. However, current texts tend to shy away from any real methodological premise; instead they give directions!

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The text, by providing an organized content, assists teachers and removes the burden of creating basic materials. If it regulates everything that happens in the classroom, it usurps the teaching task and leads to the condition Helen Warriner attributed to lack of adequate methodological preparation, that of the textbook's being "omnipresent and ever open".[1] The method, or approach, must ultimately be the responsibility of the teacher, for refining the content for a specific group of learners (e.g., an adult continuing education group or 15-year olds in rural Pennsylvania) and enlivening it for effective classroom interaction requires the knowledge and the personality of the instructor. Earl Stevick observes that successful methods are less dependent upon materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses than upon what "goes on inside and between" the individuals in the classroom.[2]

AN ABUNDANCE OF METHODS

Today's teachers are faced with a plethora of methods, not only in the professional literature but also in the popular press which has done much to publicize Suggestopedia, the Rassias Method, and immersion programs. Methods with capitalized names (Total Physical Response, Community Language Learning, The Silent Way, The Natural Way) compete with those carrying more generic labels (career education, humanistic education, functional/notional syllabus, global education, individualized study). While advocates are always enthusiastic, it is doubtful that any single method will again reach the widespread prominence of the audiolingual movement in the 1960's. One reason lies in the recognition within education in general, that the "one right way" for all teachers, all students probably never did and never will exist. The search for a panacea wanes as educators accept diversity and devise alternative ways to deal with it. Furthermore, the reality of the foreign language classroom will continue to be one in which the majority of teachers use basic texts and materials geared to a broad audience. Yet the goals and purposes of the instruction may vary greatly. Thus the most successful teachers will adapt and borrow those facets of methodologies which meet their goals, which can be built upon their text content, which appeal to their students' learning styles, and which promote the communication and learning desired.

A pragmatic approach views the text as a source of content which can be used in a variety of ways. The method is a teacher decision; it might be identical to that proposed by the textbook authors; it might involve minimal adaptation, or it might take a vastly different approach to the language samples in the book. The choice of method need not result in unsystematic eclecticism with no goal, sequence or unifying theory. Teachers should investigate the newer methodologies, but with specific goals and learners in mind; they should seek out those aspects which would coincide with their instructional program and advance it. In this manner, the teacher becomes a lifelong learner in his or her chosen profession by discovering ways to improve the interactions in the classroom. A model of process is given in Figure 1.

ADAPTATION: A GENERAL VIEW

There are several reasons why teachers may hesitate to tamper with the materials that have been selected for use in their courses. One is the belief that the textbook, written by experts, is somehow sacred and inviolable. This no doubt stems in part from a lack of self-confidence; even if this is not the case, lack of time may prevent some overworked teachers from revising the text to make it more compatible with their students. For these teachers, the task of textbook adaptation may simply seem overwhelming. A more realistic look at how texts are written and what adaptation actually involves should allay some of the fears of reluctant adapters concerning the why's and how's of the process.

First, even though the text's authors and publishers certainly try to produce a fine product, they must take into account practical concerns such as printers' costs and profit margins. For this reason, almost every textbook involves some compromises, and few authors are completely pleased even with their own books. Furthermore, in trying to reach a mass market, the author has to imagine a hypothetical group of students taught by a hypothetical teacher who may or may not resemble you and your students. The fine tuning, the adaptation to your particular situation, is necessary if the subject matter is to be presented to your students in a way which is meaningful to them. This fine tuning does not have to be a complete overhauling of the text. One might simply add an example not found in the book or telescope an assignment by having students prepare only the even-numbered items. From this it is only a few steps to a more sophisticated form of adaptation, moving the section on question-formation forward to permit earlier communication among students, for example. As the teacher increasingly assumes the role of decision-maker, the book becomes merely a skeletal framework upon which the teacher hangs the course.

The decision-making process actually begins with the selection of a text. As a general guideline for evaluating text materials for possible adaptation, one might look at the criteria set for by Stevick as essential for the "whole learner."

> (1) There should be something for the emotions, as well as for the intellect. That something may be beauty or humor, but it may also be controversy or apprehension. Or beauty and controversy may occur together.
> (2) The materials should provide occasions for the students to interact with one another.
> (3) The materials should allow students to draw on present realities, as well as on their distant future goals.
> (4) The materials should provide for the students to make self-committing choices in the areas covered by 1 to 3 above. . . .
> (5) Design of the materials should contribute to the student's sense of security.[3]

If our materials do not reflect these characteristics, this might be one dimension important to the adaptation process.

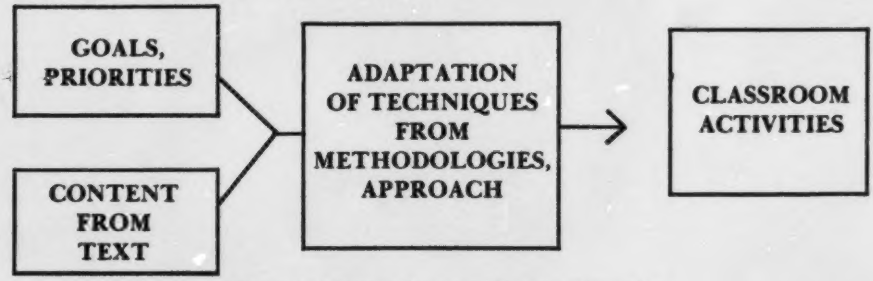

Figure 1. A Pragmatic approach to text adaptation

Such ideal materials, if they exist at all, are rare. At best, one seeks a text compatible with the instructional aims of the course and the level and needs of the students. The teaching task is to implement the materials so that they reflect the characteristics given above.

Three teachers who have selected the same book may wish to modify it for different reasons. Teacher A is working with students with widely varying abilities and decides to individualize part of the text in order to make enrichment and remediation available to students according to their ability level. Teacher B, using the same beginning text to teach adult business people, decides to eliminate the cultural selections which deal with dating and college life and to substitute cultural information more pertinent to the business world. Teacher C feels no great need for individualization nor for aiming the language study at special purposes; however, during the textbook selection process, this teacher did identify a few areas of weakness in an otherwise good text. Teacher C, who probably represents most of us, will concentrate on compensating for text defects. These may include among others, a lack of variety in the exercise material, a few dialogues which sound more like written than oral language, an insufficient amount of material for development of one or more of the skills, and stereotyped or inadequate cultural material. Still another deficiency shared by far too many texts is that they simply contain too much material to cover thoroughly. This teacher may wish to make extensive use of the adaptation techniques which follow, and the other two teachers would select those which best solved their more specific problems.

TECHNIQUES OF ADAPTATION

This description of techniques is not meant to be exhaustive, and in many cases, the distinctions drawn among categories may seem arbitrary. All are related, thus some overlapping is inevitable. It is the application of these techniques with text content and method which is the ultimate instructional decision.

Setting priorities involves decisions such as what should be eliminated or designated for recognition alone in situations where time is limited.

Focusing involves emphasizing a certain skill or skills and, consequently, deemphasizing others.

Reordering involves moving material from one chapter to another or from one position to another within a given chapter.

Reshaping involves reworking and/or combining certain segments of a chapter to make them more compatible with pedagogical principles and students' needs.

Deleting involves the complete elimination of entire sections of a chapter or of certain portions of those sections.

Substituting involves replacing one element of a chapter with another, a communicative drill for a mechanical drill, for example.

Supplementing involves adding new material to compensate for text deficiencies.

Simplifying involves making complex material more accessible as when a college text is adapted for use with high school students.

Modifying involves changing certain sections of a chapter (the setting of a dialogue or the context of an exercise, for example) to make them more compatible with course goals and students' interests.

Individualizing involves arranging or packaging any part of the lesson so that students can work at their own pace, to a predetermined degree of mastery, or as their cognitive abilities or learning style demands.

Humanizing involves personalizing classroom communication so that language needs are initiated by the student as well as the text or teacher. It also places the expression of students' feelings and thoughts on an equal footing with factual information.

Sample Mergers: Text Content and Selected Approaches

The following "case studies" will illustrate the adaptation process with the following combinations:

Content	*Approach*
• Dialogues	• General adaptation Techniques of reordering, reshaping, etc.
• Grammar exercises	• Communicative skill development
• Vocabulary	• Affective activities
• Reading	• Individualization

While not the only possibility for adapting any portion of the text, they are suggestive of what can be done. In each case, reasons for particular combinations will be explained.

THE DIALOGUE

The dialogue has been a central and pivotal part of the typical textbook lesson for many years. Its longstanding popularity can probably be attributed in large measure to the following characteristics: (1) The dialogue embodies language in action and thus provides a realistic context for structures and vocabulary about to be taught. (2) The strong desire of most students to be able to communicate in another language makes an oral, and thus less formal, conversational presentation preferable to a narrative in most cases. (3) The dialogue, in essence a little play, has a certain theatrical appeal which can be exploited. (4) Finally, because the dialogue is based on a situation, it provides a vehicle for presenting social and cultural practices along with the linguistic patterns. Although some recent textbooks include simple narratives in alternation with dialogues, this departure only serves to emphasize the fact that the dialogue is ubiquitous in elementary and intermediate texts and thus in the classroom.

Teachers are adept at the most common ways of teaching dialogues. For example, they can be repeated, read aloud, memorized, and acted out. Comprehension questions can be asked on the dialogue content. While these activities all have a certain merit, they have their drawbacks as well. Memorizing and reciting dialogues requires an enormous amount of time, and when this is overdone, students may be unable to make the transition from dialogue lines to real communication. Repeat-ing and reading aloud are essentially pronunciation exercises and, as such, represent only a minimal first step toward skills development. Comprehension questions, which if well done, can involve several skills, may, because of their predictability, require little more of the students than matching or manipulating words in the questions. This does not mean that dialogue activities are never appropriate, but there is no reason to approach dialogues in the same ways time after time. The following questions have been designed to help teachers decide how to exploit most effectively the dialogue material provided in their textbooks:

(1) Is the dialogue *properly placed* for your purposes? If it is at the beginning of the chapter, the text has probably been designed for an inductive approach. If your students would profit more from a deductive approach, begin with the grammatical material and use the dialogue as a culminating activity. (Generally speaking, younger students learn well through an inductive approach while older students tend to be more comfortable when more deductive approaches are brought into play.)

(2) Do you want to use the dialogue as a *single unit* or would your purposes be better served by dividing it into several *mini-dialogues* which can be presented whenever or however you deem appropriate?

(3) Can the dialogue be improved by a few minor additions, substitutions, or deletions? For example, after having devised several mini-dialogues, you may decide that one or more are unnecessary for your purposes. Substituting the second person familiar pronoun for the polite can change the tone of a conversation as can the insertion of a few phrases such as "What a shame!" or "That's terrific!"

(4) Do you really need to use the dialogue at all in certain lessons? If the situation and language seem contrived and artificial, consider another means of providing a realistic context for the grammatical and lexical content of the lesson. Possession, for example, could be introduced by actual classroom interaction using students and their belongings. This may be preferable to the text dialogue which might run something like "Is this your bicycle?" "No, it isn't my bicycle. It's my sister's bicycle." "So this is her bicycle. Then where is your bicycle?" "It's with my brother's bicycle. They keep their bicycles in the garage. His bicycle is red and her bicycle is green." Surely, one can improve on this obviously contrived language!

(5) If the *setting* of the dialogue is uninteresting and/or unsuitable for your students, can it be modified without much difficulty for more appeal and utility? In the case of older learners a dialogue in which teenagers discuss going to a party might be modified so that the characters are adults discussing going to a nightclub or an experience at a youth hostel could be changed to a hotel.

(6) Which *skills* can best be developed by the dialogue? Is this a dialogue which is dramatic enough to be acted out? Does it provide one or several situations which could be amended for role-play with or without cue cards? Or is it a dialogue which is really better suited for

listening comprehension or reading? Could all or some parts be rewritten by students as a narrative? Could they use the dialogue to create skits of their own? Or prepare a summary orally or in writing?

(7) Is the dialogue suitable only for whole class work or could it be exploited in small groups? Some of the suggestions in (6) make interesting activities for small groups or pairs.

(8) Do you need to revise the dialogue drastically or even replace it? Many teachers do not have time for this type of adaptation but, on certain occasions, a creative teacher with very good language skills can write a more interesting and realistic dialogue than that in the textbook. The new situation might be tied to students' current interests — a television program, movie, sports event — or their immediate needs — pronouncing names of foreign foods on a menu, understanding the words of a popular song. If however, teachers find themselves rewriting almost every dialogue, they should probably consider changing texts.

This list is meant to stimulate a more creative approach to an old standby. In the final analysis, if the dialogue does not motivate, build expectations, or foster a positive attitude toward the rest of the chapter, then adaptation in some form becomes a priority for the teacher.

GRAMMAR: TOWARD MORE MEANINGFUL COMMUNICATION

Most textbooks are built upon a grammatical syllabus, and the grammar component is by far the largest segment of any chapter. Questions concerning the teaching of grammar may focus on: (1) choice of structures to be studied and the sequence in which they are offered, (2) the presentation/explanation of the rules, and (3) the practice exercises in the skills. Any of these phases might be altered by teachers. In the first case questions as to receptive versus productive skill emphasis are important especially in light of the results of Total Physical Response methods where a solid basis in listening comprehension of structures precedes productive involvement. In order to make room for communicative exercises, some structures might be emphasized productively when alternatives are left for recognition purposes. For example, one might learn the structure "to go plus the infinitive" to express a future action and keep the true future as a receptive skill at beginning levels.

In the second case the teacher may decide to take an inductive, deductive, or even a mixed approach to the order in which rules and examples are presented. It is the third aspect which might receive fuller attention in this report for the practice element is the one most essential to classroom instructional time. This is true for students as well as teachers, for whether at home or in class, learners are quite aware of the exercises they perform. Moreover, students *do* what they *learn to do*, and communicative proficiency will only be achieved where communicative practice exists.

Madsen and Bowen's advice that the teacher should always do every exercise carefully before assigning it is a good place to begin when evaluating the grammatical practices in textbooks.[4] By doing this teachers will undoubtedly discover many instances in which the exercise should be amended or eliminated. Certainly the triteness of many question/answer practices becomes evident as the teachers experience the artificiality and boredom for themselves. A decision might then be taken that instead of assigning a group of ten questions to be answered, the instructor only requires students to prepare designated ones which are supplemented spontaneously in class discussion or which are given on worksheets to students.

A second way of evaluating grammatical exercises is by using Paulston and Selekman's model of drill stages: mechanical, meaningful, and communicative.

- *Mechanical drills* have one correct response. Learners can respond and practice without understanding what is being said if they can correctly apply the structural rule. Indeed, insertion and manipulation of a nonsense word is indicative of this control.
- *Meaningful drills* still tend to have a correct response, but it is dependent upon some understanding of information as well as structural manipulation.
- *Communicative drills* are still built on a selected structure, but the response approaches more natural communication and allows the student to supply new information which cannot be controlled by the teacher.[5]

The more recent textbooks do demonstrate that efforts are being made to include drills in all these categories. However, the preponderance of exercises often remains on the mechanical level. More importantly, research and observation have been indicating that this stage may be less important than had been thought — that meaning can be integrated from the outset with beneficial results.[6]

If communication in the foreign language is an instructional goal, and it is hard to imagine a class where that is not the case today, then communicative practice must be a major classroom activity.[7]

As a first step in adapting exercises, try to classify them in terms of the mechanical, meaningful, communicative paradigm. Limit the number of mechanical drills by one of several techniques: (1) Use them for homework, laboratory practice, small group or paired practice under time limitations in the classroom; (2) Hold students responsible for achieving mechanical control by showing them the pattern, providing answers, and letting them do as much work (or as little) as they need to feel comfortable with the pattern; (3) Choose from the mechanical drills those few that can be conducted as a challenge or game and use them as a warm-up activity to review a pattern.

If the majority of text exercises are mechanical, see if you can convert them to meaningful activities. This can be done by using visuals, by giving foreign language or English cues which require the students to respond with items out of order, or by personalizing the drill cues by asking for "truthful responses." If conversion is not possible, then it may be necessary to design meaningful exercises and substitute them for those in the text. Most students, with little purely mechanical work, can deal with meaningful exercises while still perfecting the mechanical control of the pattern; it is important not to underestimate their ability to do so and to recognize the role meaning plays in remembering.

Finally, if the text also includes communicative drills, evaluate their effectiveness. Again, if they are not available, exercises may be adapted and given a context for communication, or they may need to be developed. Naturally, communicative activities are more time-consuming and that is why their inclusion may demand the elimination of many of the mechanical exercises at least during classroom time.

A sample of a grammar point carried through the sequence might look like this.

Topic: *-er* verbs in French, present tense.

- *Mechanical drills*: Text is abundant in them. Use briefly in class to exemplify pattern. Assign for home practice as needed. Person-number substitution type drills:

Je danse bien.	Je danse bien.
Vous ____________	Vous dansez bien.
Elle ____________	Elle danse bien.
Nous ____________	Nous dansons bien.
Tu ____________	Tu danses bien.
Ils ____________	Ils dansent bien.

- *Meaningful drills*: The text gives a series of questions addressed to students about themselves and "mythical" people (Does John play tennis?). To make them more meaningful, adapt for the following exercise.

  (A) Look at the activity given in the column, then check the word that indicates your involvement in that activity. Be prepared to state in French how often you pursue the activity. (EX. *Je regarde souvent la télévision.*)

	Toujours	*Souvent*	*Parfois*	*Rarement*
Chanter:	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jouer au tennis:	☐	☐	☐	☐
Regarder la télé:	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ecouter la radio:	☐	☐	☐	☐
Manger de la pizza:	☐	☐	☐	☐
Téléphoner:	☐	☐	☐	☐

  (B) In a group of 4, give the statement that expresses your involvement from the chart above. One person in the group records a summary of your responses. EX. *Marc chante rarement, Janine chante souvent, et Marie et moi, nous chantons parfois.*

There are many simpler exercises which are still meaningful, and there are possibilities for limiting to oral skills or including written ones as here. Part A is to assure the designation of meaning, so that the student thinks about a truthful, thus meaningful, answer. Part B could be done orally in round-robin fashion, or an adverb could be given to cue student responses in that category, or students could question one another (thus includng the 2nd person form).

- *Communicative drills*: Find a "*copain copine*" by doing the following activity. In column 1 list 5 activities you like to do and do often. Then question at least 3 other students to see if they enjoy the same things; record their response as + if they agree with you and as – if they differ. Select the most compatible person based on their responses.

MOI, JE #1____ #2____ #3____
1. *J'écoute souvent le rock*
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________
5. ____________________
6. ____________________

Donc, ____________ *est un bon copain une bonne copine pour moi!*

Going beyond communicative *drills* into interaction activities that carry out real language purposes is a further step in the development of communicative proficiency.[8]

VOCABULARY: THE MEMORY GAME

Generally, texts present new vocabulary in two ways: in the dialogues or other discourse contexts and in thematic groupings such as food, clothing. These come together at the end of the chapter with a reference list usually of foreign language/English equivalents. Thus, the content is given by the text, but there tend to be few exercises geared to acquisition of vocabulary. Adaptation is sorely needed in this area, especially since more communicative goals have stressed the need for semantic control. Affective categories which appeal to the "subjective thoughts and images that already reside in the learner's mind"[9] are particularly effective when combined with vocabulary practice.

The student's task in vocabulary learning depends greatly on the ability to commit to memory large groups of new words. When affective activities serve as the practice vehicle, student exposure to semantic items is coupled with a high degree of personal involvement. The approach also offers an opportunity for more realistic language use, since learners express an idea, opinion, or personal statement, instead of giving the stilted "The apple is red" kind of response generated by many exercises.

Another advantage to the linkage of vocabulary and affective activities is that often the lengthy list of words is "chunked" by the learner into manageable steps. The format of the exercises offers a choice so that new vocabulary is internalized by stages: (1) Students learn those words necessary for self-expression (e.g., I value most highly the job of ____________________); (2) Words used by peers are learned next; (3) Words presented by the teacher or text are learned for recognition. It has been the student who has made the decision about active/recognition vocabulary in terms of individual needs, and it must be acknowledged that those items in recognition categories may never become active for a given individual — unless forced to do so for a test, a short-term condition.

Perhaps this is as it should be. Words essential to one's communicative needs are mastered, and the rest remain in the realm of recognition until circumstances require usage. When vocabulary is practiced in this manner, the original textbook listing will possibly have changed, too. A sports lesson may now include jogging, mountain climbing, and whitewater rafting; hockey, ice skating, and hunting may have been deleted because no student chose to use them. The teacher might control numbers of vocabulary items by eliminating less popular items.

Since individual vocabulary items will have been learned to differing levels of mastery, but in a way that is meaningful, the testing procedure will also require flexibility and individualization. Responses given via speaking or writing can be more open-ended so as to reflect individual responses. "My favorite summer sports are ______________________ and ______________________." Receptive responses would bring in words that had been in recognition categories. "Canadian athletes are well-known to Americans for (a) track and field (b) hockey (c) baseball".

The formats for affective activities are numerous and can be found in sources such as Christensen, Moskowitz or Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum.[10] Much of the literature compiled under humanistic, confluent education labels, and the descriptions of approaches such as Community Language Learning, are good sources of techniques and strategies for establishing a climate conducive to the student/teacher interactions that make this vocabulary format work.

As an example, let us assume a class of adult learners working with the vocabulary topic of "colors."

Activity: Open-ended sentences **Vocabulary theme**: Colors

Quand je suis triste, la tristesse est ______________________
(When I am sad, sadness is ______________________)
Quand je suis heureux/heureuse, le bonheur est ______________
Quand je suis optimiste, l'optimisme est ______________
Quand je suis pessimiste, le pessisme est ______________
Quand je suis jaloux, la jalousie est ______________
Quand je suis amoureux/amoureuse, l'amour est ______________
Quand je suis calme, le calme est ______________
Quand je suis révolutionnaire, la revolution est ______________

Procedure: (1) Students complete with the color that comes to mind.
(2) Class answers are shared and tallied to see areas of consensus.
(3) Rationales for answers can be given, or interpretations.

It should be noted that these affective activities require little class time in execution although teacher time in designing them is greater. They can be spread over a few days to increase exposure. Much drill is incorporated during the sharing of answers, and this can easily replace the more mechanistic activities which often constitute vocabulary practice.

Students of all ages seem to enjoy these short activities because they are saying something even as they are learning the new vocabulary. Communication is not a reward at the end of a long struggle. Teachers will find that in subsequent lessons students do produce more creative and expressive responses and they do draw upon the vocabulary they have identified and selected. The memory task is lessened when the new information is something they wanted to be able to say.

READING: THE INDIVIDUAL'S SKILL

In the area of reading, most textbooks provide interesting selections as far as content is concerned, but they too often fail to offer either the teacher or the student an effective means for developing the skill. Instructional problems arise because for a long time it was assumed that the bridge to second-language reading was anchored to mastery of the oral skills and to native language literacy.

To gain an awareness of the intricacies of the reading skill, some elaboration of the process might be useful before discussing application of a method. Reading cannot be observed; there is no language product that the instructor can see, or hear, or correct easily. The comprehension process takes place between the eye and brain of the reader; it is a solitary, invisible, individual event. *Solitary*, because no other individual contact is needed to pursue a reading task. Practice takes place between learner and text with the teacher's role one of setting conditions and diagnosing results. *Invisible*, because the most active part of reading goes on in the head and is as much a result of the nonvisual information the learner brings to the task as the linguistic information in the text. The instructor, unable to enter the brain, can only try to help the reader use if effectively.[11] *Individual*, because no two readers are intellectually alike; they differ in their mastery of language, in their cognitive development, in their knowledge of the world and in their willingness to take a guess.

Since improving the reading comprehension skills of foreign language students requires coping with these various factors, an individualized reading program most ideally adjusts to these differences. The adaptation process for doing this is not complex if the teacher blends suitable text elements with supplementary materials. It amounts to adjusting the teacher's lesson plan into a form which can be used by students.[12] The theoretical justification for the five-stage process outlined here will be necessarily brief, and we will focus on implementation via an individualized approach.

The teacher plan and/or student package should include the following stages wherever possible:

(I) **Pre-teaching/Preparation:** Activities which stimulate abilities in prediction and build expectations parallel the "readiness" activities common to elementary reading lessons. On the adult level, there is also a preparation stage which is automatically triggered in native language situations but which needs to be encouraged in foreign language ones. Useful classroom techniques include: (1) brainstorming activities which release vocabulary with high potential for appearing in the reading materials; (2) reading contextual information such as visuals, titles, headlines, charts or maps; (3) determining sequence when the selection is a continuation or an excerpt; (4) pure prediction where students hypothesize about the significance of the title or anticipate the completion of the first line.

(II) **Skimming/Scanning Guide:** Students are prompted to read through the selection at least once. A timed reading accompanied by a device to locate main ideas or the general thrust of the narrative provides an umbrella for later contextual guessing and decoding. Exercises might include: (1) skimming groups of short readings/paragraphs for main ideas; (2) underlining topic sentences; (3) selecting from multiple-choice statements the best paraphrase of the main idea/

conclusion; (4) matching subtitles with paragraphs. The major instructional goal is to establish the parameters of the topic so that further attempts at confirmation are focused.

(III) **Decoding Guide:** With the overall idea in mind, the reader seeks more detail in comprehension. Prepared materials draw student attention to the linguistic and logical information needed to advance the cycle of hypothesis and confirmation. On a language level, reading hints or glosses guide learners in the use of cognate recognition, vocabulary expansion based on word families, discourse devices such as definitions, comparison or contrast, and simple contextual guessing. On a factual level, readers might be asked to demonstrate comprehension of a series of ideas in a study guide tailored to the actual content (e.g., locate phrases describing the main character; arrange events in chronological order). Often the open-ended questions in textbooks can serve this purpose, for they really require manipulation of language and ideas rather than measurement of comprehension.

(IV) **Comprehension Measure:** These items should be keyed to facts, linguistic decisions, inferences, and judgments. Most effective formats are those which allow for quick checking and which stick with the receptive skill. These include: some variety of true/false, multiple-choice, completion, matching, Cloze procedures. Open-ended questions are less effective in that they tend to assess productive skills or manipulative abilities.

(V) **Transferable or Integrating Skill:** This last-area takes the learner from the immediate text to the development of the skill itself. Items practiced for transfer are those which help students become better readers in the future such as pattern recognition for cognates and word families, interpreting structures receptively, understanding the patterns of discourse and making inferences. Integrating skills are those which lead from the content of the reading to the other skills or to the culture via supplementary materials and realia.

A major advantage of individualized reading lessons is that each student is forced to rely upon his/her unique abilities and experiences to achieve comprehension. Class time that might have been spent reading aloud or in limited participation in question/answer practice becomes an intensive and meaningful individual experience.

MAPPING OUT A CHAPTER FOR ADAPTATION

The previous sections have addressed strategies for adapting various lesson components in an in-depth fashion. At this point we will show how a chapter from a currently used textbook could be adapted to a realistic situation. This final section will bring together a number of strategies and illustrate how they interact and complement one another. It will, therefore, serve not only as a model but as a summary of this entire article.

For our example, we have chosen the following situation: A teacher has been asked to develop a course for a group of adults planning a trip to France. Since no money is available for special materials, the teacher must adapt a college French text to their needs. The book in question is *First-Year French* by Joiner, Perla, and Shinall.[13]

The first step for the teacher is to establish priorities for the course and for each individual lesson. Keeping in mind the needs of travellers, s/he decides to focus chiefly on oral skills with particular emphasis on listening comprehension. Likewise, exercises, activities, vocabulary, and structures which relate well to situations likely to be encountered by tourists will take precedence over those of a more general nature. Written skills will be practiced only in contexts likely to be of use such as the reading of menus and of a number of important signs.

Having established priorities, the teacher can now begin to write objectives. Here, it will be necessary to take into consideration the total number of hours alloted to the course and the way in which these hours are spaced over a given time period. Knowledge of the learners, their background and capacities, is also essential if the objectives are to be realistic. Generally, one can assume that adult learners will be long on motivation and short on time, that their hearing will not be as keen as that of younger learners, that they will learn more slowly but perhaps more thoroughly than the average college student, and that they will prefer a deductive approach to grammar.[14]

Having set priorities and objectives, the teacher turns to materials. Since Lesson One does contain greetings, some pertinent remarks on French pronunciation and a few questions of use to tourists, it can remain as a point of departure. Keeping in mind such objectives as: the learners will be able to introduce themselves and to exchange greetings with another person, the teacher begins a section by section analysis of the chapter. The seven subdivisions of Chapter One are the following: the French sound system; diacritical marks, punctuation and capitalization; the verb *aller* and subject pronouns; characteristics of the French sound system; a main dialogue based on the theme of the first day of class; an activities section; and a vocabulary list. Each of these is introduced by a brief (4-6 lines) mini-dialogue which is followed by explanations of either pronunciation or structures and finally by drills and exercises.

The first mini-dialogue is useful in that it presents greetings and introductions in an authentic context. The other three, with their talk of chalk and books, are so classroom oriented that they should be eliminated entirely except for a few useful phrases which can be taught in realistic contexts divised by the teacher. For example, a role-playing activity which simulates the mailing of packages would provide for much practice of the "Qu'est-ce que c'est?" and "C'est un. . ." constructions. As a bit of affective adaptation, the teacher could ask students for a list of objects they would be likely to send back home. These, then, would be practiced in the activity.

In similar fashion, the textbook drills and exercises can be made more useful and personal by substituting words the students want and need to know for those selected by the textbook authors. For example, instead of using "Je vais à la fenêtre (la porte, *etc.*)" to practice *aller*, the teacher might decide to use names of cities the students are likely to visit. Rather than a whole-class simple substitution format, more meaningful group work could be used as in the following example: The first student tells where he or she is going. The second student tells where he or she is going and restates where the first student is going as well. This procedure continues full circle until the first student summarizes the plans of the others.

An analysis of three of the seven sections, (two dealing with the sound system and one dealing with diacritical marks, punctuation and capitalization), reveals that they can be easily combined in an activity in which the students would practice reading aloud from a French menu.

Moving to the main dialogue, the teacher notes that it is too long for memorization and that the vocabulary is too restricted to the classroom to be of great use to the students. It could, however, with a few changes be divided into three short dialogues, each of which would embody a situation likely to be encountered by tourists. For the first of these, the setting will be changed from the classroom to a hotel and the conversation will take place between a tourist and desk clerk rather than between a student and professor. Only two minor changes of structure (*nous je*) and (*livre - clef*) will be necessary. In similar fashion, the next four lines can be transformed into a conversation between the tourist and a maid or bellboy. Following this are six lines which deal with asking people's names. These can be practiced as a directed dialogue in which the teacher uses third person forms and the students use only "je" and "vous". Finally, the last three lines of the dialogue can be eliminated as not useful. The shorter dialogues which have been created need not be saved until the end of the chapter and need not be practiced in sequence.

The "Activities" section, also near the end of the chapter in the text, can be exploited much earlier than its position would indicate. Our teacher, sensitive to established priorities and objectives, decides to combine the two situations for role-play with dialogue segments, to use the sound-symbol correspondence practice as a preparatory step for the menu reading activity, and to eliminate altogether the writing activity.

The vocabulary list, the final section, can be made more meaningful by substituting words perceived as useful by the students for those in the text and more manageable by designating certain words for active use and others for recognition only. For example, the words and phrases under the headings "greetings," "questions and answers" and "commands" will be on the active list; whereas words particular to the classroom and not of use to tourists will be learned for comprehension only. Still other words and phrases may be eliminated completely.

An examination of the adaptation techniques used in the chapter reveals that a number of significant changes have been made. First, the following items have been *deleted* from the chapter: three of the mini-dialogues and the last three lines of the main dialogue, portions of three sections dealing with reading aloud, punctuation and capitalization, one of the *activities*, and a few vocabulary items. In addition, a number of *substitutions* and/or *modifications* have been necessary. A communicative drill has been devised to replace the mechanical substitution drill for *-er* verbs and the setting of the main dialogue has been changed from a classroom to a hotel. In some cases these changes have necessitated *supplementing* the chapter vocabulary but the new words should not constitute a burden for the students because they are words of great use to tourists and because other, less useful, words have been eliminated or placed on a recognition-only list.

From a more global point of view the *focus* of the chapter is now clearly on the oral skills. Some of the sections have been *reordered* and others, such as the three dealing with sound-symbol correspondence, have been completely *reshaped*. During the adaptation process the text has not dominated the decisions made by the teacher but rather has been shaped by those decisions. The changes have resulted in material which, although designed for college undergraduates, is now tailored to the needs and interests of prospective adult tourists.

THE TEACHER AS A LIFELONG LEARNER

The particular combinations of text content and methods of adaptations illustrated in this report illustrate only a few of the ways in which materials can be adapted to individual learners and classes. The real teacher task is one of delving into the literature of instructional approaches and of learning behavior. However, one also needs to be cautious about trying to emulate, or to adapt, what Stevick calls the "surface structure" of a method without really understanding why certain techniques are used.[15] Careful investigation, however, can reveal to the classroom teacher, many ways of varying the content of their lessons so as to improve the performance of their students. Sometimes one even discovers a theoretical basis for a technique that has been successful even though the rationale had not been fully developed by the practitioner.

As long as we dare to continue to learn about the language and culture we teach as well as the teaching and learning strategies which promote that achievement, then we should not hesitate to let the textbook provide us with content, with organization, with sequence. Implementation, method, approach are decisions which require the human element — teacher, students, and that magical thing that "goes on inside and between people in the classroom."

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Proficiency Testing in Second Language Classrooms

Evaluation — testing — is a necessary and important part of any foreign language program. No matter what the content and goals of an instructional program may be, the need to assess students' acquisitions of skills remains. Without testing, teachers would have no reliable and efficient way to measure student progress, diagnose students' areas of strength and weakness, or assess the effectiveness of their instructional methods. Tests are also a valuable tool in the equitable assignment of grades, for without them it is difficult to separate a student's mastery of one skill compared to another, or of particular topics in the curriculum.

Beyond an individual classroom, evaluation instruments are essential for placement of students as they move from one level of foreign language study to another, or from high school to college. Many colleges make extensive use of placement tests with incoming freshmen, even giving the same tests to their own students in order to establish cut-off scores and place the new students in the most appropriate course for their level of proficiency. The number of years a student has studied a language in high school should not be the sole factor determining appropriate course placement in college.

Since most tests in academic settings are designed to measure how well students have mastered the content of a course of study, we can tell a great deal about the goals and objectives of an instructional program by examining the tests associated with it. Over a period of time, as goals and methods evolve, the instruments used to measure them will change as well.

A survey of foreign language tests of a generation or two ago reveals a great deal about the nature and goals of foreign language instruction. Thirty years ago most foreign language tests were reading tests. When students were asked to write, they were usually asked to provide the English translation for a foreign language word or phrase.

A typical test might consist of a number of vocabulary questions in which the student saw a word in Spanish (or French or German) and had to select the best translation from a choice of five English words or expressions. Students were also given passages to read in the foreign language. Parts of sentences were underlined and the students had to translate them. In addition, there were always exercises in which the student had to provide a label — the tense, the conjugation, or the part of speech.

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As reflected in this type of test, the goals of foreign language instruction before the 1960's were limited, in most instances, to developing in the student some modest reading skills, mastery of grammatical rules, and some translation ability. The objectives of the Spanish language classroom of 1955 were not dissimilar to those of the Greek or Latin classroom of 1800. Generations of students who could barely read a sentence in Spanish, and who could speak not at all could, with ease, identify the negative imperative, regular and irregular past participles, as well as other grammatical esoterica.

The National Defense Education Act (NDEA), passed in 1958, sparked a revolution in foreign language teaching. New goals required new methods. The new methods required new resources — hardware and software. The revolution required new leaders — classroom teachers who could really understand and speak the languages they taught. New ways to test also had to be found if the new foreign language goals and objectives were to be properly assessed.

New tests were developed. The MLA tests and the Pimsleur tests assessed students' abilities in all four language skill areas. The College Entrance Examination Board introduced composite listening/reading tests into its Achievement Test series, and a French Language Examination (as distinct from the examination in French literature) in the Advanced Placement Program. A similar exam followed some years later in Spanish language. For the first time, large numbers of high-school and college foreign language students were expected to demonstrate their ability to understand and speak the language they were studying.

The above-mentioned tests, as well as the "local" tests that teachers devise for their classes, are achievement tests; that is, tests which are built to determine the degree to which students have mastered the content of a particular course of study.

Standardized tests can be either norm-referenced or criterion-referenced. Norm-referenced tests rank the students in order, based on performance on the test. While these tests provide comparative information among students, they do not tell us what an individual student can actually do with the language.

Achievement tests can also be criterion-referenced, built to measure whether students have mastered a certain skill or body of material. The purpose of criterion-based testing is not to compare one student's performance with another's, but rather to assess whether each student has met a previously established instructional goal. A basic question is being asked to which the criterion-based test provides a "yes" or "no" answer.

Challenge exams that are in use in some colleges are an example of criterion-referenced tests. Students may take these exams in lieu of a particular course, and can be exempted from the course and or receive credit for it on the basis of their performance. If the test is representative of the material covered in the course and asks students to demonstrate skills taught in the course, then successful performance on the examination would seem to indicate that the students had indeed mastered to an acceptable degree the material of the course. This is the principle on which the College Board's Advanced Placement Program operates. It seeks to demonstrate to colleges by means of student performance on an examination that these students have successfully mastered the material of a college-level course and should, therefore, be given college credit for the course.

In assessment and measurement there is regular reference made to "formative" and "summative" evaluation. In foreign language education "formative" evaluation is usually the testing or evaluation of progress through a program of studies. "Formative" evaluation in the classroom takes the form of chapter quizzes and unit tests that are based on the content of the lesson plans, the course outline and the basic text. "Summative" evaluation should provide evidence of how well the learner has achieved the major goals or objectives of the program. In our field summative evaluation should answer these basic questions:

- How well does the student understand and speak the language studied?
- How well does the student read and write the language studied?

In many foreign language programs, summative evaluation amounts to no more than formative evaluation on a grand scale. The final exam is simply a compilation of elements from the progress tests given throughout the course. This is because overall proficiency-based goals have never been established for programs of foreign language study. Course goals are most often laid out in terms of the linguistic structures and vocabulary that will be taught, and not in terms of how well the students will be able to understand and communicate in the foreign language by the end of the semester.

The danger inherent in using formative evaluation instruments exclusively is that successful performance on measures bound to, and reflective of, the course of study may not necessarily reflect real ability to communicate in the language. That a student can memorize and recite some lines of dialogue and correctly replace elements in a pattern drill does not mean that he or she can meet basic needs through the medium of the foreign language in a real-life context.

Performance or proficiency-based foreign language testing complements achievement testing, responding to the need to evaluate how well students can take what has been learned and apply it in practical situations. Unlike achievement tests, which are tied to a particular curriculum, proficiency tests are linked to noncurricular criteria of language use.

The skills of speaking and writing lend themselves to proficiency-based testing because they are the areas of actual communication in the foreign language. In order to communicate an idea in writing, for example, it is not enough to know the verb conjugations and the genders of all the nouns; one must also be able to tie these pieces of language together into a coherent whole.

The four language skills are usually grouped, for purposes of instruction, into the two categories of literacy skills (reading and writing) and oral skills (listening and speaking). For the purpose of testing, however, it is much more practical to group the skills differently; into receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (writing and speaking). The receptive skills can be neatly measured by discrete-point tests, either multiple-choice or fill-in-the-blank. The stimulus is heard by the students (in the case of measures of listening comprehension) or printed in their examination papers to be read (in the case of vocabulary, structure, and reading comprehension). Testing of productive skills, writing and speaking, is a more complex proposition. Whereas tests of listening and reading comprehension can be quickly and reliably machine scored, the scoring of writing and speaking ability must be left to human beings. Evaluation of speech and writing by even well-trained individuals is naturally a slower and less reliable process than machine scoring of objective questions.

Remarkable progress in the rapid scoring of writing has been made in recent years at Educational Testing Service. The work there has been done in the scoring of English compositions, but the same principles and techniques can be easily transferred to foreign language compositions.

The technique known as "holistic scoring" is based on two major assumptions: (1) that the whole of an essay is greater than the sum of its parts; and (2) that teachers who are experienced with writing can recognize good writing when they see it, even if they cannot come to an agreement on how to describe it.

The assumption that the whole of an essay is greater than the sum of its parts implies also that no aspect of a piece of writing can really be judged independently of the others, since everything is part of the whole — the spelling, the choice of words, the organization of sentences in a paragraph, the grammatical correctness. All of these factors contribute to the impression that the reader has of the written work and, therefore, to the evaluation that the reader makes of that work. Since the composition as a whole is being judged, what has been done well naturally stands out more than what has been done poorly or not at all.

The second major assumption in holistic scoring is that teachers who are experienced with the teaching and evaluation of writing can recognize good writing when they see it, even when they cannot agree on a description of it. When presented with a group of papers to be scored, they will agree on the ranking of those papers, even though they might not be able to agree on the weights to assign to the various traits if they were to score the compositions analytically (marking all the errors, and taking off points based on the number and type of flaws in the paper).

A demonstration of holistic scoring was carried out at the 1979 Northeast Conference. Since the audience consisted of teachers of several different languages, a group of papers written in English was used for the samples. Although the 200 teachers present had never attempted to score papers holistically before, and although most of them were accustomed to grading compositions analytically, the group was almost unanimous in their assessment of the papers after a short (20-minute) training session.

The principles and techniques of holistic scoring dovetail nicely with the current emphasis on "communicative competence" as an appropriate goal for high school and college language instruction. Students in their first years of study are often so painfully aware of their limitations that they are unable to express themselves, orally or in writing, even at the level of their ability. Much of the teacher's job is to keep these students communicating, using the skills that they are acquiring, combining and recombining the pieces of language that they are learning in as many ways as possible so that the ability to use the language creatively to express thought will be built up. The more the students write in the foreign language, the better their writing skills will become.

Proficiency-based testing of speaking is well established within the federal government, if not in education. The language schools of such agencies as the Foreign Service, the Department of Defense, and the Central Intelligence Agency have had as their mission the linguistic training of professionals who represent the

United States in foreign countries. The instruction is intensive; students normally study for 40 hours a week for several months before they are proficient enough to assume their posts in the field.

At the end of their training, the learners must demonstrate the ability to function in the foreign language in situations such as those they will encounter on the job. An "A" or a "C" is meaningless to an ambassador, a chief of mission, or an artillery officer. Faced with the need to evaluate the actual performance ability of their graduates and the additional need to provide labels that would be readily understood by non-specialists, the linguists at the Language School of the Foreign Service Institute developed a rating scale to describe speaking ability and an interview-based evaluation procedure for assigning ratings. Although the scale and testing procedure were designed for use with their own graduates, the Foreign Service Institute linguists were called upon to administer their test and rate the performance of personnel from other government agencies such as AID and the Peace Corps. What is important is that the measure and the scale were equally valid when used with those who went through the FSI course and with those who learned the language at home, in school, or overseas. The interview and rating constituted a summative evaluation procedure independent of any program of studies. The criterion against which performance would be compared was the speaking or oral interaction ability to be expected of an educated native speaker.

The FSI oral proficiency test consists of an interview, which can be anywhere from five to 30 minutes in length, depending on the proficiency of the examinee. By means of what appears to be an informal, friendly conversation, but which in reality is a carefully structured interview, the examinee is carried through a range of subjects, beginning with simple greetings and the weather, moving to the examinee's personal history and interests, and then on to more complex subjects such as work and ideas about current issues of the day. The interviewer tries to elicit a variety of verb forms and tenses, beginning with the present, then moving into the past and future, and on into the conditional and the subjunctive. The interviewer starts out speaking slowly, then gradually speeds up, speaking in more colloquial language. He or she also asks for responses that are longer, to evaluate the examinee's fluency. The interviewer very quickly gets a feel for the general level of proficiency of the examinee, and zeros in at that level, continuing the interview until it is clear that the interviewee has produced samples of the very best speech of which he or she is capable.

The scoring of this interview is accomplished by comparing the speech of the examinee with a series of descriptions of real-life language capabilities, and then deciding which level represents the closest match. As an example, the description of Level 1 (survival level, the speech of an individual who is "able to satisfy routine travel demands and minimum courtesy requirements") is as follows:

> Can ask and answer questions on topics very familiar to him; within the scope of his very limited language experience, can understand simple questions and statements, allowing for slowed speech, repetition or paraphrase; speaking vocabulary inadequate to express anything but the most elementary needs; errors in pronunciation and grammar are frequent, but can be understood by a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners attempting to speak his language. While

> elementary needs vary considerably from individual to individual, any person at Level 1 should be able to order a simple meal, ask for shelter or lodging, ask and give simple directions, make purchases, and tell time.

The five linguistic factors that are included in the description of each level, and which have to be evaluated during the course of an interview, are pronunciation, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy, fluency, and listening comprehension.

Performance-based evaluation of foreign language skills — as exemplified by the language proficiency interview — has been adopted by agencies inside and outside the federal government. Several state and municipal education agencies* have chosen the interview and scale for purposes of bilingual teacher certification. The Province of New Brunswick (Canada) uses the interview with secondary school students for evaluation of the provincial second language (French/English) program. Missionary groups, international student exchange programs, and major industrial organizations require the interview for assignment overseas.

Proficiency-based evaluation procedures such as the Language Proficiency Interview are as yet little used in traditional academic foreign language programs, although interest at the college level seems to be building in favor of measures of this type. The Foreign Service Institute recently ran a series of workshops for college faculty members, where a number of professors of French and Spanish were trained to administer the interview test to students on their own campuses. Colleges that set language requirements in terms of years of study are well aware that they cannot, on the basis of course attendance, certify that their students have achieved a certain level of proficiency in the use of the language. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages has received a grant from the Department of Education to explore further with college teachers the appropriateness of the interview and scale for use at the college and university level.

A curriculum-free test of speaking proficiency is an instrument that would be of value not only to college and university faculty members but also to employers in social services, international business, medicine, and a large number of other fields. It can also be used to assess the language capability of individuals who have learned their foreign language outside school settings. A single test with one scale, then, could be used for a wide variety of purposes with anyone at all, from those who know only a few words of a foreign language to native speakers of the language.

One example of how the oral proficiency test has been used in an educational setting can be found in the State of New Jersey, where the Deparment of Education mandated that teachers of bilingual education and English as a second language had to meet certain standards of linguistic proficiency. To determine what level of ability in English and in the home language of children in bilingual programs should be expected of teacher candidates, a standard-setting study was carried out. The study was designed as follows:

Five-minute segments from twenty recorded and rated language proficiency interviews were selected. Only performances rated between 1+ and 4+ on the FSI scale were included. It was assumed that no performance below 1+ could possibly be

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*At this time, the states of New Jersey, Illinois, and Texas are using the Language Proficiency Interview test for this purpose.

acceptable and that level 5 performances would all be acceptable. The segments were scrambled in random order. Eleven judges for ESL and eleven for bilingual Spanish received instructions emphasizing that their task was to judge whether the speaking proficiency of the person being interviewed in each segment was "at least minimally sufficient for this person to function adequately" in a bilingual or ESL classroom.

The judges were themselves bilingual teachers, supervisors of bilingual programs, and administrators in bilingual schools. The judges, of course, were not informed of the ratings and were instructed to judge each sample independently and without discussion.

The results of the study indicated that there was a critical level of proficiency below which most judges indicated that the performance was inadequate. The requirements for the oral proficiency of bilingual education and ESL teacher candidates were set accordingly. Similar studies could be carried out for any number of job categories — travel agents, flight attendants, tour guides.

At the high school and college levels, adoption of a common scale would allow us to plan efficiently and set forth clear, attainable goals. For example, the Foreign Service Institute has estimated that it would take some 360 hours of intensive training in Russian for a learner of average aptitude to attain Level 1 (see description on page 128). This estimate was made on the basis of long experience with large groups of learners all evaluated by the same procedure. It is very difficult to argue that they should be able to develop Level 2 ability speakers in 200, 300, or 500 hours when solid evidence to the contrary exists.

In an average high school, four years of foreign language instruction hardly add up to the 360 hours needed for the highly motivated professional Foreign Service officers to reach survival level in Russian. The way most high school foreign language courses and textbooks are structured indicates that far more is expected of these students, who do not have the advantage of concentrated study and small classes. In addition, most high school students study a foreign language for only two years.

School administrators, students, parents and the public at large must know that it is unrealistic to expect us to give students even basic survival skills in a foreign language in two short years. We must be able to show people what can be expected, realistically, in two years or three or four, or in six or eight semesters. In order to do that, however, we need to be able to describe language performance in terms that everyone can understand.

A great deal of work in the development and refinement of language performance scales has been carried out by various federal government agencies. Recently, a group of linguists and foreign language teachers from Great Britain, the United States, Japan, and Germany, under sponsorship of the English Speaking Union, the British Council, and Educational Testing Service, met in Princeton and London to review existing scales and to suggest further refinements.

More work is yet to be done to expand the linguistic descriptions at those levels of the scale that correspond to the oral proficiency that students are likely to attain. With the new attention to foreign languages that has been sparked by the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, we appear to be on the threshhold of a promising era for foreign language education. As we set forth our goals—clear, comprehensible, and attainable—effective and appropriate measurement and evaluation must be included as a vital component.

Technology and the Foreign Language Classroom

ED216551

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Audiovisual Materials and Techniques for Teaching Foreign Languages: Recent Trends and Activities

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Foreign language educators have for some time now advocated using audiovisual materials to teach foreign language and culture. The last ten years in particular have witnessed a surge of activity in the field. New audiovisual materials and complementary methods of instruction have been developed. Older materials and techniques have been refined. New ways have been discovered in which such devices as audiotape recordings, videotape recordings, photographs, films, television, and radio broadcasts might contribute to accomplishing the goals of language teaching. Much of this activity has been influenced by the increasing availability of different kinds of materials and equipment and by recent research in linguistics, psychology, and educational technology. Reports of successful experiences with audiovisual materials fill the pages of our professional journals and are presented in the many workshops of our state, regional, and national conferences. The fact that the incorporation of audiovisual materials into the foreign language curriculum has contributed to higher levels of student motivation and achievement confirms the value of this renewed interest and justifies continued investigation of the issues involved. In the few pages that follow I will present a brief overview of current trends and activities in audiovisual materials development and suggest a very general framework on which to base their design, selection and control.[1]

Recent experimentation with audiovisual materials has provided the profession with considerable insight into the language learning process and the optimal conditions for second language acquisition. Proponents of current trends, such as student-centered learning, communicative competence, personalization of instruction, teaching of culture and the "humanistic" approach, etc. have recognized the importance of using audiovisual materials to:

(1) provide students with a variety of simulated situations in which to practice meaningful language exchange,
(2) create interest and stimulate a desire to participate [illegible] communicative activities relevant to students' personal experience and needs;
(3) increase concentration, retention and recall of language items presented;

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(4) expose students to the non-verbal aspects of language communication; and

(5) increase student awareness of the target culture and their own culture.

The kinds of audiovisual materials which have proven most valuable in the accomplishment of these goals are those that are "authentic", which portray realistic situations, provide examples of natural language use within a communicative context, and illustrate the paralinguistic aspects of spoken language expression When the material to be learned is presented in the context of active, real-life experiences or simulations thereof, classroom and laboratory activities become more meaningful and interesting and contribute to the development of greater language competence and cultural awareness.[2]

In the light of these discoveries, teachers, foreign language media specialists, and commercial producers are busy collecting and developing such materials and making them available for teacher and student use. The "quest for the authentic" has brought about interesting results, some of which I have briefly outlined below.

AUDIOTAPE RECORDINGS

The foreign language audiotapes that were based on the tenets of the audiolingual method and restricted to exercises of repetition and structural manipulation are being slowly revised and supplemented to include more meaningful and communicative exercises and activities.[3]

Audio materials for active and "purposeful" listening are being developed with accompanying print support which require the performance of specific tasks based on the comprehension of items presented.[4]

Sound effects are often added to tape recorded lessons to help make dialogs more realistic, to provide clues for meaning, and develop comprehension.

The addition of the visual component to language laboratory work is a major trend as seen in the rapid expansion of traditional audio labs into "video labs" in which each listening station has been equipped with video screens.[5] Many laboratory manuals now contain more drawings and diagrams on which listening and speaking exercises depend.

The testing of communicative ability is being done on a much larger scale in the language lab and has been judged a reliable method of evaluation of competence. Students record their oral responses to test items they hear on tape. Teachers listen to their recordings and make corrections, either in written form or by recording them at the end of the exam tape.[6]

Live discussions, telephone conversations, and other types of spontaneous language exchange, recorded on location, are being used with success at the intermediate and advanced levels.[7] Work with such audio materials helps prepare students to transfer their practice to the demands of "real-world" language use and trains them to listen with real efficiency.[8]

Exercises involving rate-controlled speech, now relatively distortion-free on specially adapted tape recorders, are proving valuable in developing aural comprehension. The growing interest in teaching listening has focused attention on the importance of the control of the flow of words in normal speech. Experts now recommend the use of speech expansion, speech compression, and temporal spacing (inserting pauses into recorded speech) for teaching listening comprehension.[9]

VIDEOTAPE RECORDINGS

The capability of this medium to represent spoken language within a moving visual context as well as the increased accessibility of video equipment and tapes, have made activity in this area especially intense.

As portable video recording equipment (camera and recorder) has become more affordable, videotaping is being done both in foreign countries and at home in classrooms and studios. Student productions are becoming common. The active, participatory nature of videotaped student performances of skits, dialogs, interviews, and other types of improvisation and role-playing makes such activities highly appropriate to developing communicative skills.[10] One teacher has reported an exciting experiment in the recording and exchange of videotapes between his students and those in a school in Germany. In these "video letters" students tell about themselves and their families, narrate scenic tours of their hometowns, and explain and demonstrate customs and lifestyles of their cultures, both in English and German. These kinds of experiences show great promise in developing cultural awareness and in involving students in a very personal way in the language learning process.[11]

Videotapes continue to be developed by publishers of language textbooks as supplementary materials. They most commonly include dramatic representations of dialogs and grammar and vocabulary exercises; audio and pictorial cues are reinforced through the use of captions.[12] Even though the high cost of such pre-recorded programs is still prohibitive for most institutions, videotape continues to gain in importance as a classroom instructional tool and will most likely become as common as audiotape as a major component of foreign language texts.

In the teaching of pronunciation, videotape recordings have been made to show students the position and movement of the speech organs for the proper articulation of foreign language sounds. Students' speech, captured on videotape is reviewed for correction and improvement.[13] Another successful visual technique for teaching pronunciation was recently reported which utilizes an oscilloscope to compare and contrast sounds, representations of which appear on a display screen. Students work at matching the graph of their utterances with that of the model provided both visually and orally.[14]

The dual audio track on most video recorders makes it possible to record a second language soundtrack onto any pre-recorded videotape. This feature has been used for exercises in oral translation and to provide the option of listening to either an English or target language version of the narration.

Controls which allow the instant replay and pausing of particular frames in a videotape program are now standard features on most video equipment. Teachers are realizing the value of such features in controlling classroom presentation of videotape programs. At any time a moving visual can be frozen on the screen and used as a still visual for as long as necessary to make comments or for drill and practice. The interfacing of microcomputers with the videodisc, illustrated in a recent Northeast Conference workshop, makes possible rapid retrieval of any one frame of a program as well as interaction between the video program and the viewer.

This equipment is already on the market and experimentation is currently in progress in applying it to foreign language learning.[15]

TELEVISION PROGRAMS

A rich source of "authentic" materials is television programming from the target culture. Documentaries, news and weather reports, interviews, commercial advertising, sports events, and dramas, provide a wealth of examples of current language usage and exposure to cultural characteristics.[16] Considerable progress is being made in solving problems resulting from the incompatibility of American and foreign standards and the copyright restrictions on recording programs off the air onto videotape. Direct reception of foreign television programs is now a realistic possibility with recent developments in cable and satellite technology. Costs of small satellite receiving stations continue to decline and some enterprising amateurs have patched together "homemade" varieties which are even less expensive than commercial ones. [17] In the very near future teachers should have access to an extensive collection of inexpensive foreign television materials. Pressure should continue to be exerted on government and industry to grant foreign language educators special permissions for use of international broadcast media.

Of particular value would be the coordination of print materials with foreign television programs similar to those prepared by some of our educational television networks for the teaching of language arts to American high school students.

Some foreign language teachers have used American television programs to assist in the teaching of culture. Programs which treat ethnic groups in American society were assigned for students to view at home. Class discussions dealt with the values, attitudes, and stereotypes these kinds of programs reveal and the role that media plays in establishing them. The awareness of their own culture gained from this experience proved valuable in their study of other cultures encountered in the second language classroom.[18]

Television programs, such as the ABC news broadcasts, which have been captioned for the hearing impaired provide ESOL teachers with materials with which both listening and reading skills can be practiced and developed.[19]

RADIO PROGRAMS

Shortwave radio programs are easily obtained and provide excellent opportunities for the development of listening comprehension. Daily news broadcasts, radio plays and other types of programs originating in foreign countries are being recorded on audiotape and made available for student use in the language laboratory. In schools where shortwave radio clubs exist, students have set up regular conversational exchanges with amateur operators in other countries. Follow-up activities such as the exchange of letters, photographs, and cassette recordings by mail make the experience even more personal and meaningful.[20]

Many local university radio stations sponsor student-produced foreign language hours which feature interviews between students enrolled in language courses and native speakers (such as foreign exchange students). Current popular music, news items, and sports events from the target culture are also included.[21]

FILMS

Foreign language films continue to be popular as materials which are very engaging illustrations of authentic language usage within a meaningful context. In the past films have been widely used to teach culture and for listening comprehension development. Teachers are now creating techniques to exploit the potential of film viewing for the teaching of grammatical structures and for developing speaking skills. An interesting example is a course in intermediate French, developed at Yale University, in which a popular French feature film, presented in segments, serves as the basis of instruction. Activities with slides (photographed from the screen), audiotapes (of the soundtrack and supplementary exercises), and written materials (worksheets and excerpts from the screenplay) are carefully coordinated with the viewing sessions and involve the practice of vocabulary and grammar items extracted from the film's dialog. As a final project students perform their own altered versions of selected scenes and are recorded on videotape for evaluation.[22].

The conversion of films to videotape allows greater teacher control of the medium (as mentioned earlier) and makes it possible for teachers to assign the viewing of films as a language laboratory activity in situations where labs are so equipped. Students can also practice recording alternate soundtracks when films are available in video format.

Foreign films which have English subtitles can be an aid or a hindrance to language learning depending on the purpose of the teacher. One teacher, who felt that his students were relying on the translations too heavily while viewing the film, reports a method he devised of masking the titles from the screen by an adjustment made on the film projector.[23]

Student interest in foreign films continues to be high. Teachers could well capitalize on that interest by incorporating films into language lessons in some of the ways here suggested.

STILL VISUALS

This category, which includes photographs, charts, maps, drawings, slides, and overhead transparencies, comprises the least expensive and easiest to produce of all visual materials Still visuals which provide meaningful situational contexts for language practice have been widely acclaimed as devices which can have a very positive influence on increasing recall, retention, comprehension, interest, and motivation. They have commonly been used for a variety of activities — as visual cues for pattern drills, vocabulary exercises, verb drills; as testing devices; as illustrations of cultural information; as catalysts for creative oral expression in the target language — the list goes on. They are the most flexible and economical of all visual materials. The same item can be used at many different levels of instruction to achieve various goals. The audio accompaniment can be changed according to the situation, provided either by the teacher in the classroom, by audiotape for individual practice in the laboratory, or by the student making an oral presentation.[24] Due to the many audiovisual production aids now available, it is easier and less time-consuming for the teacher to make still visuals that look professional.

Teacher-made materials are indeed a valuable resource for the foreign language classroom and have several major advantages over those produced commercially. They can be designed to fit specific course content and individual learner needs; they can include items which are as current as yesterday's news headlines and which appeal to the interests of the student population of a particular language class. They also lend a special personal touch to classroom activities. Many foreign language teachers, realizing the value of having access to a storehouse of custom-made materials but not having the time to produce them all alone, have joined forces, dividing the tasks according to their abilities, and produced excellent supplementary materials for entire textbooks through this team approach. Others have taken advantage of their students' talents and have sollicited their help in the preparation of materials. Involving students in activities in which they are the writers, producers, directors, actors, technicians, and presenters is a good means of increasing motivation, providing practice in expressing their own ideas in the target language and transferring some of the responsiblity for learning the material to them. When carefully guided and supervised by the teacher, students have produced excellent materials for language classes. "Creativity awards" given by the teacher for the best production help stimulate enthusiasm and competition among students and contribute to better quality results.[25]

Evaluating the potential of the wide range of activities suggested above is no easy task. Decisions concerning the selection of audiovisual material can be crucial to the success or failure of a given language program and should not be made in a haphazard fashion. A systematic approach should be applied, taking the entire language instructional process into consideration. It should be viewed as a planned integration of carefully selected component parts (the teacher, the textbook, the audiovisual materials) functioning together in a specified way according to a plan, each part making its unique contribution. The teacher, guided by an understanding of the plan, of what each component part does well, and how each complements another, can accurately determine which one(s) should be applied to accomplish best the task at hand. When new components become available and are proposed for adoption, the teacher considers their potential contribution to the achievement of the goals of the program and selects accordingly.[26]

Even when the greatest care is taken in the selection and gathering of materials, there remains the important issue of using them in the most effective way. The very characteristics that make authentic materials so desirable for use in the foreign language classroom (their spontaneity, richness, and the broad range of language communication they can represent) also make them difficult to control in a teaching situation and susceptible to mis-use. Careful planning and the exercise of firm guidance before, during, and after the viewing or listening experience is necessary to ensure that students understand and benefit from it in terms of measurable achievement. If students are insufficiently prepared for the exposure to the materials and if the language content is too far above their level of competence, the result will be confusion and frustration. Skillful control in the ordering and pacing of activities conducted around the materials is essential to success.[27]

An important step in the direction of applying a systematic approach to the application of audiovisual materials was taken in 1969 when the Northeast Conference devoted an entire Conference to a presentation of the principle kinds of audiovisual materials available for classroom use and the ways in which they could be used in the foreign language classroom. The 1969 Conference theme, "Sight and Sound: The Sensible and Sensitive Use of Audiovisual Aids," indicated the concern with a rational analysis of the issues without neglecting the personal aspect involved in the application of machines and technology to the humanistic study of language and communication. The 1969 *Reports* were divided into six sections covering non-projected visuals, sound recordings, slides and filmstrips, the overhead projector, motion pictures, and television. Each medium was described, the advantages and limitations of each stated, techniques for production outlined, guidelines provided for selection and evaluation, and techniques demonstrated for teaching various skills at various levels of instruction. Much of the content of these *Reports* is basic to an understanding of the use of audiovisual materials and is therefore still very valuable to the teacher of the 80's.[28] This kind of undertaking provides much needed information, encourages assessment and evaluation of current use or non-use of audiovisual materials, and stimulates the imagination and creativity of the participants. It is particularly important in helping teachers to apply sound principles of materials design to the production of av materials and to the construction of language activities centering around them.

Considering the intensity of activity in the development of more and more sophisticated audiovisual materials and the valuable role that they play in foreign language instruction, it behooves our professional language associations and our pre-service and in-service training programs to continue to offer such opportunities to teachers at all levels of instruction and to support and encourage future investigation and research. The understanding and ability that result from proper training in the selection, production, and effective use of audiovisual materials will make a significant contribution to the enhancement of the quality of foreign language instruction.

Notes

1. Footnotes are provided for readers who would like to investigate further some of the applications of audiovisual materials mentioned only briefly in the text of the paper.

2. Sources of the trends summarized in this section include:

Alatis, James E. et. al., eds., *The Second Language Classroom: Directions for the Eighties*, New York, 1981.

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Stern, H. H. and J. Cummins, 'Language Teaching/Language Learning Research', in "Action for the 80's," *The ACTFL Foreign Language Education*

Series, ed. June K. Phillips, Skokie, Illinois, 1981.

3. Joan Morley, "Active Participation/Purposeful Listening: Aspects of Theory and Practice," keynote address, in *Proceedings of the Concordia Colloquium*, "The Renaissance of the Language Laboratory," Concordia University, Montreal, Quebec, 1981.

4. Joan Morley, "General Principles in Teaching Listening Comprehension" in *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures*, ed. Paulston, Christina and Mary Bruder, Cambridge, Mass., 1976, pp. 129-130.

T.B. Kalivoda, et. al., "The Audio Motor Unit: A Listening Comprehension Strategy that Works," *Foreign Language Annals*, 4 (May, 1971), 392-400.

James J. Asher, "Learning a Foreign Language through Commands: The Second Field Test," *Modern Language Journal*, 58 (Jan-Feb, 1974), 1-32.

5. Suzanne Griffin, "Video Studios: The Language Labs for the 80's," *NALLD Journal*, Vol. 15, No. 2 (Winter, 1981), 5-15.

6. A. Valdman and Marvin Moody, "Testing Communicative Ability," *The French Review*, Vol. LII, No, 4 (Mar., 1979), 552-561. A large-scale program involving the oral testing of over 500 elementary level Spanish students in the language laboratory at the University of Maryland has proven very successful. The testing is coordinated by Ms. Marie Rentz and administered by the Language Media Center staff.

7. "Le document sonore authentique dans la classe de français, langue étrangère," *Le Français dans le monde*, 145 (mai-juin, 1979), 14-104.

8. Harvey Taylor, "Learning to Listen to English," *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 15, No. 1 (Mar., 1981), 49.

9. Sister Etienne Flaherty, "Rate-Controlled Speech in Foreign Language Education", *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 12, No. 4 (Sept., 1979), 275-280, and John Driscoll, "Research Trends in Rate-Controlled Speech for Language Learning," *NALLD Journal*, Vol. 15, No. 2 (Winter, 1981), 45-51 and Paul Pimsler, et. al., "Speech Rate and Listening Comprehension," in *Viewpoints on English as a Second Language*, ed. Burt, et. al., New York, 1977, pp. 27-34.

10. Gennelle Morain, "Humanism in the Classroom: A Dramatic Proposal," in *Carers, Communication and Culture*, ed. Frank Grittner, Skokie, Illinois, 1974, 6ff., and Alan Maley, *Drama Techniques in Language Learning*, Cambridge, 1978.

11. Frank Mulhern, et. al., "The Video Letter Curriculum in the Teaching of Foreign Languages." Presentation at the 1981 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. The project was conducted in the Wissahickon School District, Ambler, Pa.

12. Two examples of such video programs: *Zarabanda* (Spanish), Time-Life release, available from EMC Corporation and *L'Ensemble: Culture et Grammaire* (French), Holt, Rhinehart, Winston release,

13. Constance Ecklund and Peter Weise, "French Accent through Video Analysis," *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 14, No. 1 (Feb., 1981), 17-23.

14. Kathleen Alberston, "Teaching Pronunciation with an Oscilloscope," *NALLD Journal*, Vol. XIII, Nos. 3,4 (Spr/Sum, 1979), 25-30.

15. "NALLD News" in *NALLD Journal*, Vol, 14, No. 2 (Winter, 1980) for more information.

16. The Japan Broadcasting Company has coordinated a popular Japanese television soap opera with a Japanese language text. It is being used by students in advanced Japanese courses at the University of Maryland College Park, under the supervision of Professor E. Kerkham. The program is available from the Institute of East Asian Studies, University of California at Berkeley.

17. Dale Lally, Jr. "Earth Satellites: A Peek Over the Horizon," *NALLD Journal*, Vol. 14, No. 2 (Winter, 1980), 5-6 for sources of information and suggestions for further reading.

18. Helene Loew, "Tuning-In: Popular Culture in the Second Language Classroom," *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 12, No. 4 (Sept., 1979), 1271-4 for more suggestions for exploiting American and foreign media to teach culture.

19. J.P. Berwald, "Teaching Foreign Language by Means of Subtitled Visuals," *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 12, No. 5 (Oct., 1979), 375-378.

20. See Edmun B. Richmond, "Amateur Radio as an Aid to Foreign Language Learning," *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 11, No. 3 (1978), 259-263.

21. As reported in T. B. Fryer, "Free to Explore: Curricular Developments" in *The ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education*, Skokie, Illinois, 1975, Vol. 7, 20.

22. Pierre Capretz, "Une expérience d'utilisation du film en tant que document sonore dans l'enseignement du français," *Le Français dans le Monde*, 145 (mai-juin, 1979), 90-94 for a very detailed explanation of his technique.

23. Hart Wegner and R. K. Look, "The Use of Subtitled Films with a Frame Reduction Plate in Foreign Language Teaching." *NALLD Journal*, Vol. XII, No. 1 (Fall, 1977), 29-35. A listing of sources of foreign language films is included.

24. Articles that I have found particularly rich in techniques for application of still visuals are:

Harry Grover Tuttle, "Using Visual Material in the Foreign Language Classroom," *Learning Resources*, 2, i, (Feb., 1975), 9-13.

Thomas P. Carter, "The Imaginative Use of Projected Visuals," *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 7, No, 3 (Mar., 1974), 314-24.

Jermaine D. Arendt, "Capturing Student Interest with Visuals" in *Careers, Communication and Culture in Foreign Language Teaching*. d. Frank Grittner, Skokie, Illinois, 1974, 51-64.

Roseann Runte, "Focusing in on the Slide: Its Practical Applications," *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 33 (1977), 547-51.

Timothy M. Scanlan, "A Picture's Worth a Thousand Words? Then Let's Hear Them!," *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 32 (1976), 415-21.

25. For project ideas and guidelines on supervision, see Charles P. Richardson, "Teachers, Students, and Media as Co-agents in Learning" in *The ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education*, ed. Dale Lange and Charles James, Vol. 4 (1972), 295-320.

26. For a more complete explanation of this approach, see Bela Banathy, "Current Trends in College Curriculum: A Systems Approach," in Emma Birkmaier, ed., *The ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education*, Vol. I, pp. 105-6. I am also endebted in this section and throughout this paper to Henry Parks (University of Maryland, Dept. of English) for his keen insights into the nature of language,

language learning, and linguistics.

27. Examples of the kind and quality of research needed in this area are: Alice Omaggio, "Pictures and Second Language Comprehension: Do They Help?," *Foreign Language Annals*, 12, 1979, 107-16 and Gunther A. Mueller, "Visual Contextual Cues and Listening Comprehension"; *Modern Language Journal*, 64, 3 (Autumn, 1980), 335-340.

28. Mill F. Edgerton, Jr., ed., *Sight And Sound: The Sensible And Sensitive Use of Audiovisual Aids*, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages: Reports of the Working Committees, 1969.

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Applications of Computer Technology in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

That we live in the Computer Age is indisputable. Whether or not the members of the foreign language teaching profession embrace the computer as an indispensable tool for daily learning activities remains to be seen. It is the purpose of this brief report to give a somewhat global look at the use of computers in teaching as well as highlight the nature of the extant applications in foreign language teaching. This report is all the more difficult to compose because developments in the field of computer science are rapid and often mind boggling. For example, as this report was being written in August, two such developments occured: (1) the publication of a disk (*The Linguist*) which enables a microcomputer to handle all diacritical marks as well as fonts for languages such as Hebrew, and (2) an announcement from IBM of its entry into the home computer market (IBM enters, 1981). By the time you read this, indubitably there will have occured other significant advances in the computer field.

The literature on the use of computers in education is vast, having burgeoned just in the past several years. However, there is still a regrettable dearth of reports on the use of computers in the teaching of foreign languages; a computerized search of the ERIC system yielded only forty articles. There is still clearly a need for more reports from practitioners in the foreign language classroom, especially from those in secondary schools.

An essential overview of the topic is James W. Dodge's chapter on computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and computer-managed instruction (CMI) in the *1980 Northeast Conference Reports*. These current remarks build on that foundation. One reviewer noted (Royer, 1981):

> In surveying available technologies in education, James W. Dodge makes one of the most important statements in the book: that all future teaching must be holistic and prepare students for accelerating change in society, the effects of technology, and maintaining one's dignity amidst life's complexities — in other words, more emphasis on humanism. According to Dodge, technology must be incorporated into our teaching and new methods developed from microelectronic applications available for consumer purposes (e.g., the personal computer). He presents examples of pedagogical materials prepared for computer managed instruction, arguing that increased accessibility of information

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> through the computer and the potential for sharing information across the country (and the world) are great benefits in return for time invested in keeping abreast of technology.

This increased accessibility will no doubt spring from the advent of the affordable, portable, and soon-to-be ubiquitous microcomputer. For the past decade, however, the use of the computer in the teaching of foreign languages has been centered in large universities where the use of a large computer was feasible. Representative programs include CARLOS at Dartmouth College, FRAND at the University of Alberta, Audrey Bratman's dissertation work at Middlebury College, and others notably at Brigham Young University and the University of Illinois. These programs as well as several dozen others in foreign languages are catalogued and described in Anastasia Wang's three-volume *Index to Computer-Based Learning* which gives the names and addresses of people to contact.

It seems that we stand on the threshold of a computer revolution. Ludwig Braun, in an undated report (p. 4), points out that "There already are over 50,000 personal computers in the hands of consumers, with that number increasing at a rate above ten percent per month." Another source (Watkins, 1981) estimates that there are already 30,000 microcomputers on our college campuses. *Popular Science* (November, 1980) reports that by 1985, twenty-five percent of the homes in the United States will have a computer. Yet, at the same time, there is a widespread fear of the computer as a dehumanizing force. Much of this attitude can be attributed to fear of the unknown. Solveig Olsen (1980), in her extensive survey on use of CAI in college and university foreign language departments, concluded:

> The remarks about the lack of student interest in CAI and the limitations of computers in what they can teach are strongly contradicted by numerous respondents with expertise in CAI. The statement is also typical in that many of the negative comments are based on impressions, uninformed opinion, or even prejudice, while the remarks from the other group, the departments with CAI, are supported by firsthand experience and observation.

Clement (1981), in dealing with the attitudes about CAI of four populations —students, instructors, lesson authors, and administrators — debunks two popular myths. He reports that there is no positive evidence that computer-based instruction is dehumanizing and that, indeed, the opposite seems to be true if one takes into account the self-reporting of those who are involved. The second myth is that students love using the computer only because it is a unique experience.

In order to dispel these vague fears that computers are destined to replace human beings, two challenges seem obvious. The first is for leaders in the foreign language profession to provide inservice opportunities. Such a thrust is just now beginning. During the early summer of 1981, this author received notice of five computer workshops of an introductory nature. Two of these (ACTFL Pre-Conference Workshop and Catholic University summer course) were specifically for foreign language teachers. Many community colleges offer excellent computer science courses, including introductory non-credit experiences. The second challenge, in keeping with the theme of this Conference — The Foreign Language Teacher as a Lifelong Learner, is for foreign language teachers to seek active involvement with computers. An initial plunge into the literature becomes addictive for those with the slightest interest in technology. A visit to a computer store raises consciousness. One might follow the example of Patrick Finnegan of Millburn (N.J.) Junior High School who was inspired by a workshop on computers at the 1980 Northeast Conference, found an underutilized computer in his math department, took a course in programming, agitated for and got additional hardware from his school, implemented a completely individualized foreign language program, and presented a highly-acclaimed workshop on his experiences at the 1981 Northeast Conference.

Consider the following astonishing paradox: the United States is unquestionably the world's leader in the production of computer technology, but we lag far behind other countries in its efficient and effective utilization, especially in education. This problem has been eloquently underscored by the eminent French journalist and statesman Jean-Jacques Servan-Schreiber (1981):

> It is in America where scientific pioneers are blazing a new trail. Their vehicle is not the covered wagon, but the microcomputer, and their goal is not the expansion of territory but of human creativity itself . . . . So in Africa, Asia, Arabia and, now, Europe, a treasure hunt has been launched, though its object is neither gold nor oil. Rather, it seeks the most fabulous of treasures: the new creative dimension that computer science can bring to the human mind. This awakening is happening everywhere — except, apparently, in the country richer in this treasure than any other: the United States. America barely uses its science for its own benefit. Its ignorance of computer science's potential has allowed entire sections of its industry and social system to collapse.

A brief tour of developments elsewhere in the world provides substantiation for Servan-Schreiber's claim and some guidelines for American educators.

U.S.S.R. A technological revolution began in Soviet schools in 1961 with the invention of the Repetitor, an electronic device for testing Russian language students (Zender, 1975, p. xv). The two architects of the cybernation of Soviet education, Admiral A. I. Berg and Academician V.M. Glushkov, long ago recognized the problem of overload of information in the education system — the gap between what was known and what was taught. During the past two decades, they have orchestrated the creation of educational technology that would aid the classroom teacher by regulating the flow of information in instruction. According to Zender (1975, p. xiii), the approach is intended to:

(1) organize rationally the processes of instruction,
(2) create continuous feedback between the student and the teacher,
(3) accelerate the rate of learning of students in critical subject matter areas,
(4) automate certain functions of classroom teachers by using technical devices ranging from small teaching machines to digital computers, and
(5) be used mainly at the secondary and higher levels of education.

Although complete details about Soviet use of the computer in the teaching of foreign languages are apparently not available, "The whir of electronic devices and the hum of electric current surging through them in Soviet classrooms should signal to world educators that the second industrial revolution of communication and control has reached one of the world's largest education systems." (Zender, 1975, p. 175.)

France. The French Government committed itself to CAI in secondary education in a pilot project in 1970. Teacher training was the primary concern. By 1983, Operation 10,000 Micros will have trained some 25,000 *lycée* teachers and double that by 1987 (Jessel, 1981). A standard computer programming language (*Language Systêmatique d'Enseignement*), based on French vocabulary, was devised and is being used nationwide so that schools can exchange software. Teachers are given released time to prepare programs. *All* secondary students use the computer in *all* subjects. At the present time, computer science courses per se are not taught; students learn about the computer by using it. In addition, the 1978 report of a Presidential Commission, *The Computerization of Society*, became a best-seller in France. The authors devised the word *télématique* to describe the growing interconnection between computers and telecommunications. They hypothesize that despite the inevitable computerization of society, the uniquely human dialogue that transpires between student and teacher will survive, even in the face of a vastly changed role for the teacher (Nora and Minc, 1978, p. 62).

Great Britain. A government plan for a regional network of computer information, curriculum development, and teacher training centers which will eventually put a microcomputer into every secondary school is in operation (Venning, 1981).

The regional centers will be linked to each other to encourage sharing of information. The costs are shared by the national government and local school authorities with the stipulation that the computers be of British manufacture. The emphasis is on teacher training and curriculum development; placing a microcomputer in every school is a secondary objective.

Sweden. All secondary schools in Sweden have a computer. Computer courses are taught with time being taken from either history, philosophy, music and art history, or one of the foreign languages (Borg, 1981).

Canada. Implementation of computer-based programs is proceeding on a province-by-province level. Hunka (1981) reports that in schools districts surrounding Toronto, there is a sophisticated level of activity as in the East York School District where each school has a minimum of 18 and as many as 27 microcomputers. Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Manitoba each have approximately 300 microcomputers in public schools. There is a severe shortage of data processing personnel in Canada.

Austria. Voest-Alpine, the large Austrian steel holding, in addition to a joint venture with IBM, has entered into an agreement with American Microsystems, Inc. to invest 50 million dollars to create an Austrian center for research, development, and production of electronic elements for the entire European market (Voest and U.S. Partner, 1981).

GOVERNMENT'S ROLE IN COMPUTER-BASED EDUCATION

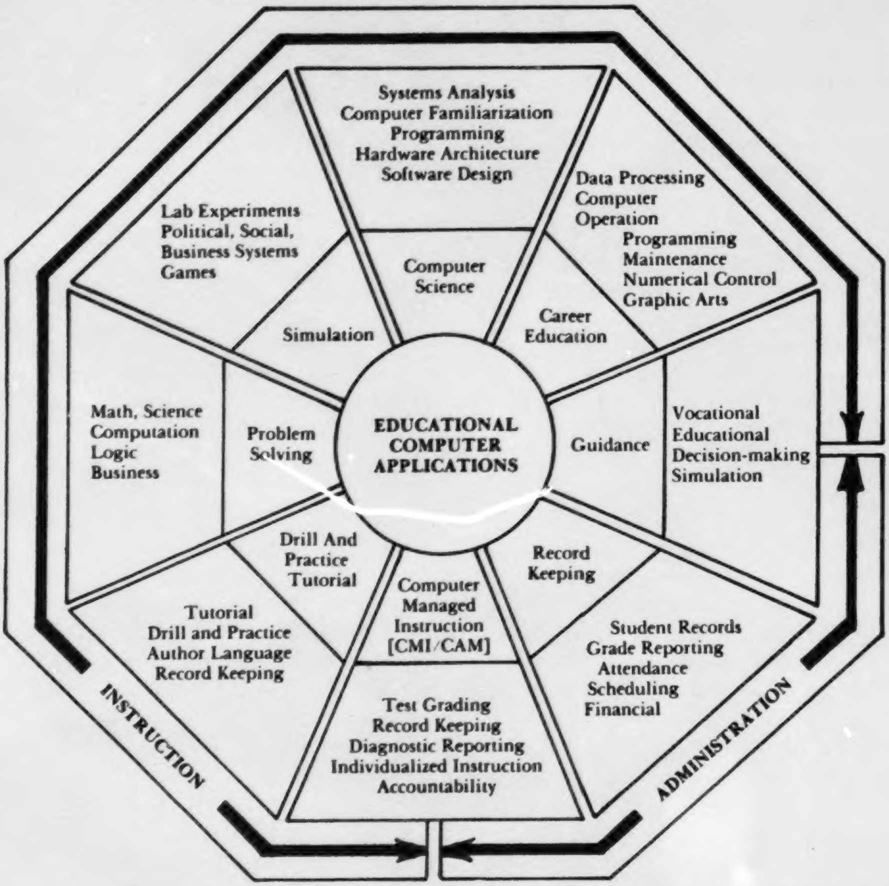
What role in the use of computers in education can be foreseen for our own Federal Government? With the publication of *Computers and the Learning Society* in 1978, the House Committee on Science and Technology "recommended that the Federal Government be the primary source of funding in the computer-based education field, taking leadership initiative in the development and implementation of a research strategy that will satisfy the requirements for compatability between broad national goals and those of the country's highly autonomous schools systems." (Melmet, 1980). H.R. 4326, a bill to establish a national commission to study the scientific and technical implications of information technology in education, was introduced by Rep. James H. Scheuer (D-N.Y.) in June of 1979. In light of current threats to dismantle the Department of Education and to lower current levels of funding for education, no swift progress seems likely.

Leadership in some localities has come from the state level. Minnesota is the only state where a single organization, the Minnesota Educational Computing Consortium (MECC) coordinates all instructional computing activity from elementary school through the university level. Minnesota has acquired 2000 microcomputers for its schools and colleges, purchasing them all from one manufacturer, thereby insuring statewide standardization (MECC, 1980). In addition to instructional uses of computers, the New York State Department of Education has developed the Comprehensive Instructional Management System to use computers to help improve the instructional decision-making process at the classroom, school building, and district level (*Computers and the Learning Society*, 1978, p. 6). The North Carolina Instructional Computing Project provides one-day inservice sessions on microcomputer awareness for teachers in the North Carolina schools, and more intensive training for administrators and microcomputer consultants (North, 1981). The Pennsylvania Department of Education has developed a curriculum incorporating computer awareness and computer usage with a brief study of computer applications and a look at positive and negative social implications of computers (Kushner, 1981).

Such centralized efforts have not taken place in the state of Maryland. Nevertheless, there have been interesting initiatives in using computers to teach foreign languages. In the 1981 summer institutes for gifted and talented foreign language students sponsored by the Maryland State Department of Education, participants were required to take a course in computer programming. For several years, three schools in Baltimore City have used PLATO installations for various types of lessons in French, Spanish, Hebrew, German, Dutch, and Greek. Students can also use the terminals to communicate with students in Canada, Belgium, and Holland. In the Prince George's County Public Schools, a cadre of 17 teachers has learned the rudiments of programming in inservice courses, and they have prepared over 100 programs coordinated with the basic texts used in five languages. All foreign language teachers have been shown how to access the terminals in each school; the teachers in turn show the students how to use them. Curiously enough, in this age when secondary math and science departments have already developed sequences of experiences using the computer, many high school students know far more than their foreign language teachers about the computer. In the Prince George's County schools, these more able students are actually doing programming of foreign language activities. Furthermore, Dr. Dora Kennedy, the Supervisor of Foreign Languages, has developed and implemented a unit on computer literacy and languages which is used in the seventh grade exploratory foreign language course. In the Baltimore County Public Schools, one microcomputer has been acquired primarily for foreign language administrative tasks such as budget, inventory, and student accounting but also for experimentation with instructional applications.

These glimpses give some idea of how others are experimenting with computers. One still wonders: "Exactly what is it that a computer can do and why should I use it?" Robert Burke (1980) postulates that "Familiarity with microcomputers combined with their ubiquity will result in uses impossible for anyone to imagine at this time." Must every foreign language teacher learn computer programming before being able to use the computer as a tool? The answer is obviously "No." Bork and Franklin (1979) point out that "The most common type of computer use in the future (as in the present) is not in writing one's own programs, but in using programs prepared by others." The following chart summarizes the commonly accepted modes of computer use:

APPLICATIONS SUMMARY CHART


Systems Analysis
Computer Familiarization
Programming
Hardware Architecture
Software Design
Computer Science
Data Processing
Computer
Operation
Programming
Maintenance
Numerical Control
Graphic Arts
Career Education
Vocational
Educational
Decision-making
Simulation
Guidance
Record Keeping
Student Records
Grade Reporting
Attendance
Scheduling
Financial
Computer Managed Instruction [CMI/CAM]
Test Grading
Record Keeping
Diagnostic Reporting
Individualized Instruction
Accountability
Drill And Practice Tutorial
Tutorial
Drill and Practice
Author Language
Record Keeping
Problem Solving
Math, Science
Computation
Logic
Business
Simulation
Lab Experiments
Political, Social,
Business Systems
Games
EDUCATIONAL COMPUTER APPLICATIONS
INSTRUCTION
ADMINISTRATION

Digital Equipment Corporation Used by permission

The mechanics of a foreign language, with its large amounts of routine facts and details, are a natural domain for the computer. Students can receive feedback with immediate reinforcement. The computer can provide remedial instruction for specific deficiencies in understanding. Many users report that students learn more in a shorter period of time. In the tutorial mode, leading questions from the computer can produce a dialogue between the student and the author of the program in the computer. The machine has promise for making individualized instruction in foreign languages a widespread reality. Bork and Franklin (1979) suggest that "The computer is the first technological innovation in education that enables us to move back, even with a large number of learners, to a situation like that of Socrates where the educator can respond fully to each individual learner." In the testing mode, the computer can easily record and analyze patterns of errors, make item analyses, and keep a data bank of test items. The teacher can be freed for the more creative and humanistic aspects of teaching. It is probably safe to conclude that in the entire country only a few foreign language teachers have ever seen a computer simulation of a foreign language situation. In June of 1980, the Apple Education Foundation awarded a grant to Michael P. Carter of Stanford University for a French history simulation project (Education Foundation, 1980); Wendell Hall of Brigham Young University has written a program for *Misión Astral*, a Spanish adaptation of *Star Trek* with conversational dialogue (Apples Mean Business, 1980). We all need to view creative projects such as these to stimulate our own imaginations. Despite the efforts of the pioneers in using computers in foreign language teaching, the brutal truth remains:

> The variety of courses with computer assistance indicates much experimentation with promising possibilities, but the only areas with documented success and widespread use of CAI remain vocabulary and grammar exercises for elementary and intermediate classes. (Olsen, 1980).

The software dilemma is likely to remain the crucial problem for the next decade. Martin (1978, p. 229) defines the problem this way: "As with videotape or other canned media, the best computerized teaching is extremely effective, whereas the worst (today perhaps the majority) is insufferable. The difference lies in the skill and craftsmanship of the person producing the program." The problem is also cited by Perlis (1979, p. 431): "Continuing association with computers leaves one with mixed feelings of awe (so much is possible) and frustration (tasks could be accomplished so much more quickly if the proper tools were available). New tasks would demand no more than a trivial effort if the proper software were available." It is clear that the textbook publishers have failed to act in the production of software (Watkins, 1981). Some electronics companies are now producing software in foreign languages.

However, we, the skilled foreign language teachers, cannot afford to wait until we also have extensive skills in computer programming in order to have quality materials. What is needed is extensive cooperation between curriculum specialists in foreign languages and the experts in computer programming.

Some readers will have approached this section of the *Reports* seeking definitive answers to complex questions on how to plan and implement a computerized program in the foreign language classroom. Some of the answers simply do not now exist. Others could not be broached in this short space. Those foreign language teachers who accept the challenge of lifelong learning will see the Computer Age as an opportunity to be a pioneer in an area of foreign language education which is still in primitive stages but which is at the same time a stimulating and creative endeavor. Those who wait for others to hand them final answers are liable to be disappointed and left in the lurch.

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1981 RECIPIENTS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS AWARD FOR EXCELLENCE IN LANGUAGE STUDY

Many secondary schools offer achievement awards to their outstanding students, and the Board of Directors of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages feels that more language students should be among those recognized. The following list represents the Awards for Excellence in Language Study presented in 1981. Any school wishing to recognize student achievement by awarding a Board of Directors Award for Excellence in Language Study should contact the Northeast Conference Awards Committee, Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753, and request a nomination form.

ALABAMA

Palmer: Palmer HS, Linda Leveen (F).

ARIZONA

Ft Smith: Northside HS, Darlene Jarrells (S), Debbie Minick (F), Anthony Swad (G).

Hermitage: Hermitage HS, Charles Flanery (F).

Jonesboro: Hurricane SHS, Rusty Barrett (F).

Phoenix: Brophy College Prep Sch, Robert Renouard (S).

CALIFORNIA

Anderson: Anderson UHS, Debora Arnold (F).

Burbank: Lutheran HS, Valerie Washington (F), Tambrie Flach (S).

Burlingame: Mercy HS, Julie Schmidt (S).

Dublin: Dublin HS, Michael Lee (S), Shivon Barton (F).

Harbor City: Narbonne HS, Lilia Barba (S), Claudia Orsillo (F).

Los Angeles: Brentwood Sch, Mel Powell (S), Leslie Martin (F).

Loyola HS: Harry Olivar (L), Oscar Perez (F), Stuart Nixon (G), Gregory Davidson (S).

Monterey: Monterey Inst. of Int'l Stud. Christopher Carman (S), Julietta Hester (F), Steven Hawes (J), Marc Freidman (Chinese).

Moorpark: Moorpark HS, Bassima Hijaz (S, ESOL, Arabic).

North Hollywood: Harvard Sch, Andrew Taylor (F).

Philadelphia: HS for Cr & Per Arts, Beverly Barksdale (S).

Roseville: Oakmont HS, Lori Carlson (S).

San Bruno: Capucino HS, Judith Hix (S).

San Rafael: San Rafael HS, Michael Hartnett (G), Laura Van Galen (S), Christine Smith (F).

Santa Rosa: Santa Rosa HS, Ann Reed (F), Shelli Hood (G).

COLORADO

Colorado Springs: Gen Mitchell HS, Julie Schaefer (G), L. Dee Gonzalez (S), Deborah Flanagan (F); **Air Academy HS**, Laurie Wedemeyer (F), Travis Eiles (G), Mary Schelonka (S).

Denver: Lake JHS, Gilbert Cordova (S).

CONNECTICUT

Cheshire: Cheshire Academy, Linda Ryder (S); **Cheshire HS**, James Flannery (F), John Owezarski (G), Kim Dellavecchia (S), James Zagres (L).

Colchester: Bacon Academy, Lori Chandler (F).

Darien: Darien HS, Alisa Andrew (F), Wendelin Reymond (S), Gerald Watkins (G), Edward Krum (L).

East Hartford: Penney HS, Tim Wood (S), Dawn Muszynski (F), Concetta Calafiore (I).

Fairfield: Ludlowe HS, Patrice Matyas (L), Marc Hodes (F), Karen Politis (S), Melanie Radomski (G); **Warde HS**, Jay Marks (S), Hope Riciotti (F), Susan Procaccini (I); **Tomlinson JHS**, Richard Turk (S), Brian McDonald (F); **Fairfield Woods JHS**, Nalina Moses (S), Jill Hutchital (F).

Glastonbury: Glastonbury HS, M. Christiane Pepe (F), John Cihak (R), Katherine Donovan (S), Mary Hallisey (L).

Guilford: Guilford HS, Kelly Devaney (G), Laura Cordts (S), Heidi Armster (F).

Hamden: Sacred Heart Academy, Noel Taddie (S).

Litchfield: Litchfield HS, John Glenn (F), Laura Mikalchus (S).

Meriden: Maloney HS, Anthony Zajac (G), Donna Belanger (F).

New Canaan: New Canaan HS, Douglas Schoemer (L), Paola Stanziale (F), Arianne Vandermuelen (G), David Nurme (S).

New Fairfield: New Fairfield HS, Pamela Lehman (S), Robin Wetheral (F), Timothy Fox (L).

North Haven: North Haven HS, Ellen Dowers (F), Nancy Longley (S).

Old Saybrook: Old Saybrook, SHS, Mary Ellen McCarry (F), Denise Matthews (S), Bruce Forbes (L).

Old Saybrook: Old Saybrook, SHS Mary Ellen McCarry (F), Denise Matthews (S), Bruce Forbes (L); **Old Saybrook Main St. Sch**, Nan Barnes (F); **Old Saybrook JHS**, Sheila Royston (S), Sharon Mulligan (F).

Old Saybrook Main St Sch, Nan Barnes (F).

Old Saybrook JHS, Sheila Royston (S), Sharon Mulligan (F).

Ridgefield: Ridgefield HS, Leslie Allen (F), Jeff Leck (G), Lisa Pagnani (S), Suzanne Arena (I).

Stamford: Sacred Heart Academy, Betty Medina (S).

Stratford: Stratford HS, Elisa Powers (F).

Waterbury: Crosby HS, Zelma Fraticelly (S), Deborah Normandin (L); **Sacred Heart HS**, Christine Doran (S), Deborah Zapatka (F), Lina Mancini (I).

West Hartford: Hall HS, Neil Becker (L), Virginia Valinho (S), Rudi Gaudio (F), Luigi Peluso (I); **Conard HS**, Karen Rudy (S), Susan Goldstein (F), Geoffrey Cook (L), Eunice Johnson (G), Mario Vicenzo (I); **King Philip Middle Sch**, Adam Kosto (F), Carl Rosin (S); **Sedgewick Middle Sch**, Daniel Gerstein (F), Carri Ann Viarengo (S).

West Haven: Notre Dame HS, Richard Sparago (F), Chris Snell (S).

West Redding: Barlowe HS, Linda Nelson (S), David Gardner (F).

Woodbridge: Amity Reg SHS, Emily Resnik (L), Nancy Rohlfs (F), Terri Cohen (G).

Wilton: Wilton HS, Tanya Moroz (F, R), Celia Kohn (L), Wendy Smick (S), Carolyn Stevens (G).

DELAWARE

Claymont: Archmere Academy, Karen Olivero (S), Christopher Spanich (F).

Frankford: Indian River HS, Michael Frey (F, S).

Wilmington: Padua Academy, Ivette Valdes (S), Michele Messina (I), Lisa Marchlik (F); **St Elizabeth HS**, Margaret Betley (S), Colleen Boyle (F).

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Washington: St. Anselm's Abbey Sch, Peter Casarella (F), Michael Carroll (S), Brian A'Hearn (G), Anthony Russell (L); **Gonzaga College Prep Sch**, Charles Day (S); **Academy of Notre Dame**, Joyce Perrin (S).

FLORIDA

Jacksonville: Bartram Sch, Sara Dever (S), Priscilla Johnson (L), Jeanne Van Valkenburgh (F).

Palatka: Palatka HS, Charles McCall (L).

West Palm Beach: Rosarian Academy, Rebeca Schmid (F).

Zephyrhills: Zephyrhills SHS, Sue Wallis (F).

HAWAII

Kahuku: Kahuku HS, Patricia Conley (S).

ILLINOIS

Chicago: Curie HS, Jesus De Leon (S); **Washington HS**, Diane Czaszewicz (S), Jodie Duble (S); **St Patrick HS**, David Gertie (S).

Chicago Hts: Bloomtrail HS, Rita Martin (S).

Evanston: Evanston Township HS, Christina Willrich (G), Greg Masters (S), Adam Bryer (F), Amy Simon (L), Victor Levinson (Hebrew).

Herscher: Herscher HS, Thomas Allsup (F), Steven Lund (S).

Kankakee: Bishop McNamara HS, Kathleen Pansa (S). **Libertyville: Libertyville HS**, Tim Samelson (G), Timothy Scheie (F), Dawn Tielke (S).

Mendota: Mendota HS, Patty Stephenitch (S).

Moline: Coolidge JHS, Nina Sluz (F); **Deere JHS**, Natalie Adolphi (F); **Moline SHS**, Cheryl Jordan (F), Karen Ferry (S), Julie Brumbaugh (L).

Ottawa: Marquette HS, Mark Salata (S).

Stillman Valley: Stillman Valley HS, Andrew Johnson (F).

Sugar Grove: Waubonsee Comm College, Deborah Hathaway (S).

INDIANA

Evansville: Mater Dei HS, Joseph Kohut (G), Keith Glaser (S).

Greenfield: Greenfield Central HS, James Emmerson (G), Mary Berg (F).

Mishawaka: Penn HS, Mary Collins (S), Kimberly Dake (F).

South Bend: Riley HS, Charles Hecker (S), Patti Gorzkiewicz (F), Roy Del Toro (G), Mary Herczeg (L). **IOWA**

Center Point: Center Point C Sch, Lori Larimar (S).

Council Bluffs: Lewis Central Sch, Teresa Cashman (S), Barbie Hahn (F).

Martensdale: Martensdale - St. Mary's Sch, Valerie House (S).

Tipton: Tipton HS, Thea Phelps (F).

West Union: North Fayette Cnty Comm Sch, Louise Broghammer (G).

KANSAS

Kinsley: Kinsley HS, Glenn Frame (F).

Sabetha: Sabetha HS, Sherry Goodman (S).

Wichita: Wichita Collegiate Sch, Brian Drevets (S), Monica Reusch (G), Lynn Humphrey (F).

KENTUCKY

Frankfort: Franklin Cnty HS, Elena Hernandez (S).

Hopkinsville: Hopkinsville HS, Walter Moore (S), John Adams, (F).

Wingo: Wingo HS, Trent Fields (F).

LOUISIANA

Baton Rouge: Redemptorist SHS, Gaylyn Bellaire (S). **Monroe: Neville HS**, Paris Soulier (S).

New Orleans: Xavier Univ Prep Sch, Theresita Crockett (F); **St James Major HS**, Dione Farria (F).

Shreveport: Green Oaks HS, Cheryl Bradford (S).

MAINE

Boothbay Harbor: Boothbay Reg HS, Jeffrey Norwood (L), Paula Bean (F), Corby Griffin (G).

Eliot: Marshwood HS, Julie Morrow (F).

Kennebunk: Kennebunk HS, Nancy Bennett (L), Brittany Wendland (S).

Portland: Univ of Southern Maine, Steven Wetmore (G), Kathi Fields (Greek, L), Lori Southworth (F).

Westbrook: Westbrook HS, Theresa Dyer (F).

MARYLAND

Annapolis: Annapolis SHS, Catherine Outerbridge (S), James Bohanan (G), Kent Heacock (F).

Baltimore: Parkville SHS, Barbara Meinhardt (S); **Archbishop Keough HS**, Ann Carnes (F); **Roland Park County Day Sch**, Muriel Castadot (F), Bridget Brennan (S); **Mt. St. Joseph's HS**, Damirez Fossett (S), Robert Lessick (F).

Bel Air: Harford Day Sch, Jacqueline Berger (F).

Beltsville: High Point SHS, Stephen Issing(G), Todd Hopkins (F), Chensu Wei (L), Ann Walsh (S), Kenneth Gill (R).

Bethesda: Stone Ridge Sch, Andrea Koppel (F); **Whitman HS**, Alison Dietrich (S), Jason Mayerfeld (F, Japanese).

Burtonsville: Paint Branch HS, Christine Sansone (G).

Damascus: Damascus HS, Charlotte Barber (F), Leslie Lightbody (G).

Ellicott City: Mt. Hebron HS, Allen Marquis (F), Donna Shreve (S), Michele Wright (G).

Frederick: Hood College, Cynthia Schoch (F), Debra Kuhn (S).

Glen Burnie: Old Mill SHS, Donna Tryon (G), Barbara Stevens (F), Julie Webb (S), Cheryl Wyatt (L).

Hagerstown: North Hagerstown HS, Brian Kurtyka (F), Diana Miller (S); **South Hagerstown HS**, Janelyn Moore (F), Wende Reeser (G), Lisa Mozingo (S).

Mardela Springs: Mardela HS, Theresa Ann Ware (S). **McDonogh: McDonogh Sch**, George Bereska (G), Yusuke Sagawa (F), Jeff Grant (S).

Rockville: Peary HS, Michael Lyons (G), Diana Hong (F), Kevin O'Keefe (S).

Salisbury: Bennett SHS, John Cavanaugh (F), Connie Bunn (S), Julie Pryor (L).

Seat Pleasant: Central SHS, Kristin Balch (S).

Silver Spring: Northwood HS, Terri Zall (F), Eileen Condor (G), Marcie Smith (S).

Towson: Baltimore Lutheran JSHS, Robert Richardson (F), Troy Rohrs (G); **Towson Catholic HS**, Susan Winchurch (S), Kelly Dryden (F); **Notre Dame Prep Sch**, Jennifer Jenkins (S), Jennifer Stradtner (F).

Upper Marlboro: Queen Anne Sch, Thais Sielecki-Dzurdz (F).

MASSACHUSETTS

Amherst: Amherst Reg HS, Suzanne Lenz (G).

Arlington: Arlington Catholic HS, Christopher Colella (L), Jacqueline Pickette (F), Lisa Celona (S).

Belmont: Belmont HS, Leigh Bonanno (S), Ann Ballotti (F), Carol Di Giovanni (I), Masako Owada (G), Wendy Lee (L).

Boston: Boston English HS, Elaine Malinowski (S).

Bridgewater: Bridgewater-Raynham Reg HS, Jonathan Rubin (F), Catherine Dion (L), Robert Clifford (S).

Chicopee: Chicopee Comprehensive HS, Robert Wilson (L), Suzanne Nadeau (F), Lisa Piquette (S), Coleen Navman (G).

Deerfield: Eaglebrook Sch, Peter Tuckerman Esty (F).

East Boston: East Boston HS, Lana Christopoulos (F), Daniel Gerardi (I), Frank Castaldini (S).

Haverhill: Haverhill HS, Michael Redfearn (L).

Hingham: Hingham HS, Michelle Milburn (S), Elizabeth Kent (F), Karen Harrington (L), Tehri Arponen (G).

Hyannis: Barnstable HS, Pat Cote (F), Paulina Amaral (S).

Ipswich: Ipswich HS, Joan Clarkin (S), Jeanne LaValle (F).

Kingston: Sacred Heart HS, Melinda Soares (F).

Lawrence: Lawrence HS, Kathleen Beveridge (S), Holly McLeod (L), Brian Collupy (I), Joseph Melo (F).

Lee: Lee HS, Daryl Wheeler (F).

Lowell: Lowell HS, Allyson Makiej (F); **Univ. of Lowell**, Jeanne Alberti (F).

Mattapoisett: Old Rochester Reg HS, William Worden (L), Lisa Marie Rocha (S), Patricia Russell (F).

Marlboro: Marlboro HS, Michelle Bisset (S), William O'Brien (F), Andrea Giannantonio (I), Matthew Dolan (L).

Melrose: Melrose HS, Thomas Ricciardelli (S), Debra Clark (F), Kerry Granfield (G), Kimberlee Gaureau (L), Jacquiline Rowe (I).

Needham Hts: Needham HS, Barry Jacobson (F), Sandra Merchant (G), Gary Gerbino (I), Robert Kahn (L), Kristen Fischer (S).

New Bedford: Keith JHS, Deborah Goulart (Portuguese), Idalina Couto (F); **New Bedford HS**, Margaret Kennedy (G), Dulce Pereira (Portuguese), Mary Davies (F), Alfred Vicira (L), Lucy Loureiro (S); **Normandin JHS**, Antonio Castro (Portuguese), Hilda Angulo (F); **Roosevelt JHS**, Maria Carreiro (F), Ana Loureiro (Portuguese).

North Dartmouth: Southeastern Mass Univ., Luis Madureira (F).

Pembroke: Silver Lake Reg JHS, Susan Bergeron (F); **Silver Lake Reg HS-Pembroke**, Donna Martz (S); **Silver Lake Reg HS-Kingston**, Elizabeth Baier (S), Marc A. Pitzke (F).

Quincy: Quincy HS, Matthew MacLeod (F).

Somerville: Somerville HS, Linda McCann (F), Ann Piccolo (I), Gilda Rego (S), Jerome Mazziotta (L), Jose Melo (Portuguese).

Southwick: Southwick HS, Darla Denis (S).

Springfield: Western New England College, Lucy Hoag (F).

Sudbury: Lincoln-Sudbury Reg HS, Lisa Brasington (L), Martin Guentert (G), Leslie Farrar (S), Lisa Kellstedt (F).

Swampscott: Swampscott HS, William Hennessey (S), Lisa Pizzano (I), Barry Sugarman (L), Carole Murphy (F).

Wakefield: Wakefield Mem HS, Lisa Guay (S), Anthony Benedetto (I), Susan Bumstead (G), Bernard Plansky (L), Frank Margherita (I).

Wellesley: Wellesley College, Deborah Davenport (S); **Wellesley SHS**, Andrew Schultz (S), Lauren Sluyter (G).

West Springfield: West Springfield SHS, Antoinette Zagura (F, G, S), Barbara Zucco (I), Brian McCarthy (L).

Winchester: McCall JHS, Suzanne Perlitsch (F), Carol Beyrenavand (S); **Winchester HS**, Elizabeth Thomas (S), Diane Uglietto (I), Laurie Gleason (G), Carol Donohoe (L), Janette Pamir (F).

Worcester: Worcester Academy, Timothy Tangherlini (F), Anthony Losapio (S).

Wrentham: King Philip Reg HS, Janice Palmer (F), Walter Eykel (S).

MICHIGAN

Bay City: All Saints Central Sch, Jeanne Niedzielski (S).

Hamtramck: St Ladislaus HS, Donna Distefano (S), Steve Kotowski (Portuguese).

Sault St Marie: Sault Area HS, Leann Hodder (F).

South Lyon: South Lyon Centennial Middle Sch, Kathy Bogan (S), Mary Ann Davio (G).

Utica: Utica HS, Ingrid Lysse (G), Christina Marsh (F).

Vassar: Vassar HS, Tamara Francis (S).

MISSISSIPPI

Clarksdale: Clarksdale HS, Michelle Adams (S).

Pascagoula: Pascagoula HS, Hellen Svard (P), Jennifer Matkin (S), Melinda Wood (L).

MISSOURI

Jefferson City: Helias HS, Kelley Dulle (F).

St Louis: Oakville SHS, Lynn Stinchcomb (F).

NEBRASKA

Norfolk: Norfolk Catholic HS, Linda Eikmeier (S).

Omaha: Millard HS, Cynthia Dillard (G), Rochelle Holmgren (S), Patricia Minardi (F).

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Dover: Dover HS, James Domingo (I).

Hanover: Hanover HS, Kirsten Munck (G).

Nashua: Bishop Guertin HS, Mark Powers (S); **Mt St Mary Seminary:** Margaret Buco (L).

Rochester: Spaulding HS, Douglas Carlson (L).

Weare: Weare HS, Barbara Knox (S), Irene Jenkins (F).

NEW JERSEY

Bayville: Central Reg HS, Ann Glenn (F), Karen Bodine (S).

Belvidere: Belvidere HS, Diana Falcinelli (F).

Berkeley Hts: Gov Livingston HS, Debbie Ascolese (S), Thomas Anczykowski (F).

Bloomfield: Bloomfield SHS, Susan Maloney (S).

Bound Brook: Bound Brook HS, Lisa Woldin (L, F, S).

Butler: Butler HS, Rosemarie Bochnig (G).

Chatham: Chatham Boro HS, Ross Christofferson (F), Michael Druding (G), Julie Corritori (S).

Cherry Hill: Cherry Hill HS West, Elizabeth Allen, (S), Pamela Shuman (F), Terri D'Alesandro, (I); **Camden Catholic HS**, Karen Rozinski (G), William Hobbs (F).

Chester: West Morris Central HS, Sonia Carino (F), Veronica Heinlein (G), Mary Viggiano (I), Ellen Deibert (S).

Cinnaminson: Cinnaminson HS, Ellen Robinson (S), Vicki Williams (R), Diane Cloeren (G), Joseph Fabbioli (F).

Clark: Johnson Reg HS, Cynthia Petrowsky (S), Elisa Guarino (I), Thomas Dunn (G).

Cresskill: Cresskill HS, Nancy Farber (F).

Denville: Morris Knolls HS, Joanne Stimpson (F), Marylou Smyth (S); **Morris Catholic HS**, Mary Lou O'Brien (L), Kevin Shortill (G), Andrew Bellucci (F).

Demarest: Northern Valley Reg HS, Christine Cuomo (I), Ruth Brody (F).

East Brunswick: East Brunswick HS, John Gonzalez (L), Jergal Atschinow (G), Marianne Dainton (F), Sharon Lewczak (S).

East Orange: Scott HS, Lamar Williams (S).

Edison: Edison Township HS, Janet Stiffey (G), Kimberly Ford (F), Kathleen McNally (S); **Stevens HS:** Verena Vater (G), Judy Balmuth (S).

Elizabeth: Benedictine Academy, Monica Frizzelle (F).

Fair Lawn: Fair Lawn SHS, Eve Bolkin (L), Michael Garval (G), Janet Perlmutter (S), Laura Zagoria (Hebrew), Karen Spina (I), Carole Schiffman (F).

Farmingdale: Howell HS, Kathy Nekrasov (R).

Franklin Lakes: Ramapo HS, Louise Wirts (F).

Freehold: Freehold Township HS, Toby Wiser (F).

Glen Rock: Glen Rock JSHS, Julianne James (L), Stephen Mosberg (F), Martin Babitz (S).

Hackensack: Hackensack HS, Dayana Savarese (I), Erica Unger (G), Elena Barrios (F), Erika Tetens (S).

Hammonton: St Joseph HS, Daniel Hernandez (F).

Hightstown: Peddie Sch, Kevin Rehnbert (L), David Stamberg (S); **Hightstown HS**, David Buchman (S, F).

Hillsdale: Pascack Valley HS, Jean Savitsky (F).

Holmdel: Holmdel HS, Deanna Aftab (S), Gerald Luchs (G), Birgit Koehler (F); **St John Vianney HS**, Stephen Mogilnicki (S), Kathleen Goeller (F), Peter Whalen (G).

Iselin: Kennedy Mem HS, Patricia Knudson (S), Susan Goley (G).

Lakehurst: Manchester Township HS, Dan Bozarth (F), Michelle Tempora (S).

Lawrenceville: Notre Dame HS, Celeste Mariano (S), Helen Lambert (G), Francis Zuccarello (L), Kerry Fagan (F).

Linwood: Mainland Reg HS, Paige Philip (F), Michele Loggi (S), Kim Kramer (L).

Livingston: Livingston HS, Sheila Wax (S), Nicole Rizzolo (I), Peggy Kuo (F), Kurt Hilss (G).

Lodi: Lodi HS, Rosa Fernandez (S).

Lyndhurst: Lyndhurst HS, Anita Cupo (I), Tracey Jennings (F), Eva Molnar (G), Vanessa Ferrer (S).

Maplewood: Columbia HS, Meg O'Malley (L), Mark Gestring (G), Deborah Coogan (S), Brendan Noonan (I), Karla Dudzik (F).

Metuchen: Metuchen HS, Araceli Ziemba (S).

Millburn: Millburn SHS, Rachel Inger (S), Scott Kauffmann (F), Richard Shapiro (L), Carol Von Glahn (G).

Montclair: Immaculate Conception HS, Vincenza Colandra (S); **Montclair HS**, Sally Poor (F), Lidia Soto (S).

New Brunswick: New Brunswick HS, Anthony Robinson (F), Claudia Pasche (S); **St Peter's HS**, Patricia Riczu (S), Ana Rodriguez (F), Vincent Zullo (G).

New Milford: New Milford HS, Geita Mirza (F), Anthony Lucinese (S).

Newton: Kittatinny Reg HS, Natalie Phelan (F).

North Arlington: Queen of Peace Boys HS, Peter Pak (F), Stanley Lewandoski (S), Anthony Salzone (I); **Queen of Peace Girls HS**, Norma Perez (S), Alina Grzybowski (F).

North Caldwell: West Essex Reg HS, Lynn Goriszak (L), Susan Konopka (I), Penney Frohling (F), Janine Slowinski (S), Audrey Franks (G).

Nutley: Nutley HS, Debra Woosley (F), Mark McHugh (L), Stephanie Musco (S), Stephen Griese (G), Bernadette Malinzia (I).

Oradell: Bergen Catholic HS, Richard Lissemore (F), Maurizio Cibischino (I), James Viceconte (S); **River Dell SHS**, Richard Ernst (S).

Palisades Park: Palisades Park JSHS, Yosuke Tsutsui (S), Denise Pavlik (I).

Paramus: Paramus HS, Mary Nese (S,F).

Parsippany: Parsippany Hills HS, Karen Farbanish (G), Daniel Flagstad (I), Regina Sohn (F), John Daly (S).

Pompton Plains: Pequannock Township HS, Charles Mallory (L), Maria Corbo (S), Nicholas Fell (G), Lorraine Finocchio (F).

Princeton: St Joseph's Prep Sch, Robert Geise.

Princeton Junction: West Windsor-Plainsboro HS, Linda Kinzinger (G), Jean Lydon (F), Kathryn Majarwitz (S).

Red Bank: Red Bank Catholic HS, Corey Amdur (F), Marie Accardi (S).

Ridgewood: Ridgewood HS, Katherine Randolph (F).

Riverside: Riverside HS, Beth Ann Coyle (S).

Rockaway: Morris Hills HS, Adelaida Rosado (S), John Gileza (F).

Rumson: Rumson-Fair Haven Reg HS, Frank Boesch (G), Nan Hughes (F,I), Beth Gilman (S).

Scotch Plains: Union Catholic Reg HS, Mari Babino (S); **Scotch Plains-Fanwood HS**, Michele Richmond (S), Cathy Callahan (G), Anders Leidal (F).

Somerset: Franklin HS, Andrew Schofer (L), Astrida Borowska (G), Susan Moss (F), Theresa Lagawski (S); **Rutgers Prep Sch**, Patrick Lenaghan (S), Tara O'Connell (F).

South Amboy: St Mary's HS, Mary Sherbert (S).

Summit: Oratory Prep Sch, Michael McArdle (S); **Summit JHS**, Darryl DeGuzman (S), Thomas Inglesby (L), Maureen McAndrew (F), Paul Schafhauser (G), Emilia di Mayorca (I); **Summit HS**, Naomi Weinstein (S), Gregory Tyler (L), Mary Ellen Resca (I), Matthew Brown (G), Jill Bernardini (F).

Tenafly: Tenafly Middle Sch, Robert Manning (F), Kristen Dorrity (S), Arthur Ollendorf (G).

Tinton Falls: Monmouth Reg HS, Lee Anne Lovejoy (F), Jeri Behlendorf (G), Suzanne Mathews (S), Jo-Ellen Noland (L).

Toms River: St Joseph HS, Norma Castillo (S).

Trenton: Ewing HS, Pamela Cebulski (S), Anna DiGabriele (F); **Hamilton HS**, Kimberly Johnson (G); **McCorristin HS**, Diane Pege (F), Lisa Schen (G), Michael Amantia (S); **Trenton State College**, Frank Richardson (S).

Union City: Union Hill HS, Avoland Jorge (S).

Vineland: Vineland HS, Abel Garcia (S), Tina Crudele (I), Suzanne Frerman (G), Michael Serra (F); **Sacred Heart HS**, Maribeth Bergamo (S).

Waldwick: Waldwick HS, Jennifer Davis (F), Lisa De Temple (S).

Wayne: De Paul HS, Karen Traeger (S); **Paterson College**, Steven Tousley (S).

West Orange: West Orange HS, Kathleen Rogers (F); **Mountain HS**, Elyssa Kolin (S), Wendy Juliano (I), Mary Freeman (F); **West Orange HS**, Josephine Franchino (S).

West New York: Memorial HS, Ela Basulto (F), Maritza Perez (I), Mayda Pena (S), Juan Aristizabal (ESOL).

NEW MEXICO

Anthony: Gadsen HS, Eduardo Mata (S,F).

NEW YORK

Almond: Almond Central Sch, Joanne Mulligan (F).

Amherst: Amherst Central SHS, Linda Hallock (F), Mary Albon (L), Samir Hague (G).

Bainbridge: Bainbridge - Guilford Central Sch, Melita Merz (S).

Baldwin: Baldwin SHS, Peter Bedrossian (F).

Bardonia: Albertus Magnus HS, Eileen Connolly (S).

Brooklyn: Bishop Kearney HS, Anne Buscaglia (S), Angela Del Bianco (F), Elvira Messina (I); **Canarsie HS**, Nicole Sommers (F), Ruth Mendez (S); **Ditmas JHS**, Robin Budd (F); **Cleveland HS**, Pictrina Viola (S), Sylvia Almazan (G), Georgios Tjoros (F), Patricia Ciccone (I)l **Roosevelt HS**, Fadil Alqokce (ESOL), Yu Yuk Wong (F), Ida Weiss (I), Vicki Hunte (S).

Bronx: Childs HS, Iris Mendez (S).

Callicoon: Delaware Valley Central Sch, Teresa Cooper (F,S).

Cambridge: Cambridge Central Sch, Dollene Coolidge (F).

Cheektowaga: Maryvale SHS, Geraldine Stachelski (S), Frank Kong (G).

Conklin: Susquehanna Valley HS, Karen Bordenet (S).

Cortland: State Univ College-Cortland, Henry Thurston (S).

Delhi: Delaware Academy & Central Sch, James Heinegg (G).

Dix Hills: Half Hollow Hills HS-East, Wendy Wills (S), Rolf Knaack (G), Sal Giambanco (F), Scaglione Enza (I); **Half Hollow Hills HS-West**, Eric Anderman (G).

Downsville: Downsville Central Sch, Pamela Combs (S).

East Aurora: East Aurora HS, Theresa Zagrobelny (S), Ann Moorhouse (L), Jennifer Black (G), Denise Fredericks (F).

Edison: Stevens HS, Robert Stewart (S).

Elmont: Elmont Mem HS, David Klein (S), Rosalie Pipia (I), Donna Fontana (F).

Elms Ford: Hamilton HS, Frances Barone (F).

Flushing: Bowne HS, Rina Figueredo (S), Izabela Krezelewska (F), Maddalena Napoleone (I).

Franklin Square: Carey HS, Elena Deliguori (S).

Garden City: Waldorf Sch, Barry Boone (G).

Hartsdale: Regina HS, Laura Kopko (S), Lisa Schneeman (F).

Hempstead: Hempstead HS, Dinora Alvarado (S), Valerie Williams (L).

Henrietta: Webster JHS, Kimberly Sage (F), Michael Hoff (S); **Roth HS**, Joseph Stellpflug (L, Greek), Scott Clegg (S), David Grimm (F); **Sperry HS**, Janice Talley (F), Ana Laura Alarcon (S).

Hicksville: Hicksville JHS, Lisa Valente (I), Julie Kent (F), Steven Rokito (S); **Hicksville SHS**, Andrea Bayduss (S), Carol Colasanti (I), Vera Lozina (F), Madeleine Ermel (G), Marcia Vrona (L).

Homer: Homer Central HS, James Sullivan (L), Alison Woodin (F), Jamie Myers (S).

Jamaica: Louis Academy, Patricia Oyhagaray (S), Jacqueline Caputo (I), Martha Granizo (F), Mary Schubert (L); **Martin HS**, Roy Ellis (S), Washington Hernandez (Portuguese), Geneive Jones (F), Doreen Hennep (I).

Jamestown: Jamestown Comm College, Michelle Liquori (S).

Kings Park: Rogers HS, Gayle Trillman (S), Esin Kulahcioglu (F).

Lancaster: Lancaster HS, Kathryn Stasiowski (F, S), Anne Ettipio (G).

Malverne: Malverne HS, Susan Fisher (S).

Mattituck: Mattituck HS, Judy Baker (G).

Mexico: Mexico Academy, Tommy DeCapio (S), Tim Dahlin (G).

Millbrook: Millbrook Sch, Pat Norman (L).

New Rochelle: New Rochelle HS, Lynn Richardson (R), Frederic Kaufmann (F), Eileen Gaffney (S), Michael Dziala (L); **St Vincent Ferrer HS**, Marie Cunningham (F), Barbara O'Neill (S); **Washington HS**, Ramona Montas (S); **Cathedral Preparatory Seminary**, Hector Jimenez (S,L); **Xavier HS**, Michael Gambello (F), Michael McLaughlin (L), Thanos Patelis (G), Stephen Lastres (S).

Orangeburg: Tappan Zee HS, Andrea Gore (F), Adrienne Onofri (I), Joyce Oberthal (G).

Orchard Park: Orchard Park Middle Sch, Piper McCalon (F), Mark Monile (S).

Pelham: Pelham Mem HS, Mary Lynn Foristall (S).

Pine Bush: Pine Bush HS, Vincent Perillo (S,F).

Port Chester: Port Chester SHS, Ann Marra (I).

Red Creek: Red Creek HS, Shelli Keeling (F).

Rochester: Brighton HS, Marcy Berger (R), Krystyna Brzustowicz (S), Wendy Zaroff (F), Terry Kent (L), Marjorie Buff (G); **Nazareth Academy**, Christine Boss (F), Lori Zimmer (L), Rosa Solaun (S), Michele Giampietro (I).

Rockaway Park: Rockaway Beach JHS, Dawn Murphy (S).

Rockville Center: Southside SHS, David Tirschwell (S).

Schenectady: Mt Pleasant HS, Thomas Bartnicki (F); **Niskayuna HS**, Thomas Eldridge (F), Michael White (S), Massimo Vaccari (L), Robert Krauss (G).

Silver Creek: Silver Creek Central Sch, Florence Williams (F).

Smithtown: St Anthony HS, Gregory Guido (F), James Gregorek (S), Gerardo Tolentino (L).

Southold: Southold HS, Maria Grissino (S).

Staten Island: Egbert JHS #2, Thomas Gioia (I); **St John Villa Academy**, Melanie Nolan (S), Patricia Williamson (I); **Morris Intermediate Sch #61**, Lydia Owens (F).

Uniondale: Uniondale HS, Sandra Metellus (F), Susan Mailaender (G), Joanne Grace (I).

Valhalla: Westchester Comm College, Nora Calhoon (F).

Valley Stream: Valley Stream Central HS, Jean McGovern (F).

Watervliet: Watervliet HS, Kristin Armstrong (R), Tracey Leibach (F), Marianne Danei (S).

West Henrietta, Burger JHS, Susan Gardner (S), Richard Hunt (F).

West New York: St Joseph of the Palisades HS, Nestor Mena (S), Anna Hopson (F).

West Nyack: Clarkstown South HS, Donna Konlian (F), Keith Furey (G).

Jack Leifer (Hebrew), Justin Richardson (I), Kendell Cornell (L), Nina Seigelstein (S).

Yonkers: Saunders Trades & Technical HS, Marina Rivas (S).

NORTH CAROLINA

Barco: Currituck Cnty HS, Timothy Owens (F), Dorothy Louise Parker (S).

Enka: Enka HS, Robin Fisher (S).

Fayetteville: Byrd SHS, Becky Hales (G), Terri Spriggs (S), Robert Carlyle (F); **Sanford SHS**, Sheila Cain (L), Wendy Coin (S), Lisa Monaco (G), Margit Monaco (F).

Mt Gilead: West Montgomery HS, John Mabry (F).

Oxford: Webb SHS, Susan Kay Bowen (F).

OHIO

Batavia: Clermont Northeastern HS, Darlene Wisecup (S).

Bellaire: Bellaire HS, David Dumas (F,S).

Chardon: Notre Dame Academy, Deborah Kersman (G), Gerri Palmeri (S), Susan Palmer (F).

Chillicothe: Trace HS, Scott Frey (S,F).

Cleveland: St Joseph Academy, Michelle Stamper (S), Mary Calkins (L); **Villa Angela Academy**, Katherine Kraska, (F,L,S).

Cleveland Hts: Beaumont Sch for Girls, Margaret Jennings (F), Judith Miller (L), Eva DiFranco (S).

Columbus: Mifflin HS, Anna Luciani (F).

Dayton: Stebbins HS, Shelly Stacy (S).

East Cleveland: Shaw HS, Anthony Grubb (F), Patricia Hardy (S).

East Liverpool: East Liverpool HS, Kathleen Kibler (S), Lisa Howard (F).

Hebron: Lakewood JHS, Brenda Miracle (S); **Lakewood HS**, Brad Nadolson (S).

Kettering: Fairmont West HS, John Regan (F).

London: Madison-Plains HS, Mary Mader (F).

Martins Ferry: Martins Ferry HS, Debbie Ballint (F).

Milford: Milford HS, Bonita Wonder (L).

Mineral Ridge: Mineral Ridge HS, Dawn Wilson (F, S).

Mt. Vernon: Mt Vernon Nazarene College, Jill Basye (S).

Nelsonville: Nelsonville-York Sch, James Smith (S,F).

Parma Hts: Holy Name HS, Thomas Langa (F).

Port Clinton: Port Clinton HS, Lori Salyers (F), Jose Olalde (S).

Shaker Hts: Holy Name HS, Thomas Langa (F).

Thompson: Ledgemont HS, Jeff Ward (F,S).

Tipp City: Bethel HS, Judith Little (S).

Toledo: Central Catholic HS, Martha Granowicz (F), Mark Eckhart (G), Jackie Szmania (S); **Whitmer HS**, Joelle Khouzam (G).

Trenton: Edgewood HS, Rodney Kelley (S).

Wapakoneta: Blume JHS, Rhonda Hicks (L), Chris Heitz (S), Tim Laver (F).

West Milton: Milton UHS, Cathy Ann Busse (F).

OKLAHOMA

Colcord: Colcord HS, John Riley (S).

Geronimo: Geronimo HS, Susan Shappell (S).

Healdton: Healdton HS, Lisa Morris (S).

Noble: Noble HS, Kelly Larson (S); **Noble JHS**, Bryan Stevens (S), Nola Creson (F).

Skiatook: Skiatook HS, Pamela Sewell (S); **Sulpher HS**, Angie Underwood (S).

OREGON

Burns: Burns UHS, Dave Rovotney (S).

McMinnville: McMinnville HS, Cassandra Haggard (F).

PENNSYLVANIA

Abington: Abington HS, Eleanor Stevens (F), Kathleen McCarthy (L), Ann Letizi (I), Anne Jawer (S), Suzette Neu (G).

Allentown: Central Catholic HS, Colleen Sherry (F), Lisa Lehman (S), Maria Lloyd (G); **Allentown: Morton JHS**, Lorraine Joseph (S).

Alverton: South Moreland SHS, Charlene Johnson (S).

Ambler: Wissahickon HS, Rajesh Grupta (G), Denise Boscoe (F).

Beaver Falls: Geneva College, Dale Russell (F).

Blairsville: Blairsville SHS, Paula Santoro (S), Carrie Lassar (F).

California: California State College, Elizabeth Foyle (S,F).

Columbia: Columbia HS, Shari Kriner (F), David Rheinhart (S).

Coraopolis: Moon SHS, Kenneth Kalavanja (G,F,I).

Downingtown: Downingtown SHS, Danielle Beaucamp (F), Jane Thompson (S), Frank Pechin (G).

Doylestown: Central Bucks West SHS, Michele McNenny (F), Meryl Marks (S), Janice Richter (G), Micheal Lewis (R), Kinga Kovesces (L).

Drexel Hill: Archbishop Prendergast HS, Patricia Buscagalia (S), Marguerite Onimus (L).

Emporium: Cameron Cnty HS, June Clark (G).

Exeter: Wyoming Area SHS, Denise Fetsko (F), Rebecca Barnes (G), Joseph Orr (S).

Fairless Hills: Pennsbury HS, Veronica Guerrero (S), Stefan Drust (G), Brigitte Trice (F).

Flourtown: Mt St Joseph Academy, Grace Chaple (S), Stephanie Hamarman (F).

Fogelsville: Penn State Univ-Allentown, Karen Fabian (F).

Hazelton: Hazelton HS, Lisa Polchin (F), Irene Zaremba (G), Nancy Barletta (S).

Houtzdale: Moshannon Valley HS, Joanne Spencer (F).

Huntingdon Valley: Lower Moreland HS, Margaret Englesson (G), Paula Krasny (F), Kim Corscadden (S).

Jefferson: Jefferson-Morgan JSHS, Debbie Hopes (S).

Jenkintown: Jenkintown HS, John Faith (F), Jessica Mauger (S).

Lancaster: Conestoga Valley HS, Douglas Kraft (S).

Latrobe: Greater Latrobe SHS, Maureen Martin (G), Alan Ferrenberg (F), Gary Ciocco (S).

Lewistown: Chief Logan HS, Jill Hagenberger (G).

Meadville: Allegheny College, Wendy Lou Elcesser (G), Brian Smith (F), Wendy Coates (R), Jane Sirkis (S).

Merion: Merion Mercy Academy, Cindy Roviello (F, S).

Milton: Milton Area SHS, Dana Fisher (S).

Monroeville: Gateway HS, Elizabeth Pierce (F), Lou Ann Tronsberg (S), Alicia McGinnis (G).

Newton Square: Marple Newton SHS, Eleni Daskalakis (F), Micheal Solominow (G), Stefanie Granik (S).

Newville, Big Spring HS, Deb Swarner (F), Jonathan Bream (S).

North Versailles: East Allegheny HS, Tammy McLaughlin (F).

Palmyra: Palmyra Area SHS, Stephen Ballard (F).

Philadelphia: Northeast HS, Chet Nastala (F), Christopher Furlong (G), Elaine Daniel (S); **Edison HS**, Russell Groono (F); **Overbrook HS**, Gail Bryant (S), Delores Mason (F); **St. Joseph's Prep Sch.**, Joseph Maccarone (G), Michael Batur (S), Leo Janas (F); **Parkway Program**, Beverly Ivena (F); **West Philadelphia HS**, Donna Vance (S); **Olney HS**, Taekwhan Yu (S), Paul Matias (F); **Washington HS**, Kenneth Taylor (L), Mindy Escourt (Hebrew), Wendy Forman (S), Joseph Feeney (G), Lynne Pinciotti (I), Renee Di Simone (F); **Masterman Lab & Demo Sch.-SH**, Leslie Carpenter (S), Paula McCrae (F); **Lab & Demo Sch.-JH**, Steven Wright (F), Maria Di Makis (S); **Little Flower HS**, Lisa Green (G), Ramona Farrell (S), Elizabeth DeSantis (F); **St Joseph's Univ**, Michael Avalone (S), Jeanne Gallagher (G), Rose McGruddy (F); **Father Judge HS**, John O'brien (L).

Pittsburgh: Upper St Clair HS, Zuzana Klain (G), Lisa Coff-man (S), Romana Pautler (F).

Edgewood HS, David Glick (G), Charle Fedel (L), Ruth Guilinger (F).

Seton-LaSalle Reg. HS, Michelle Monahan (F), Mark Stephens (S).

Schuylkill Haven: Blue Mountain, Amy Parrish (G)

Sewickley: Sewickley Academy, Tina Mucci (F), Troy Appleton (G).

Sharon: Sharon SHS, James Currier (F), Tami Generalovich (S); **Sharon JHS**, Carol Rombold (F), Barbara Davies (L).

Springdale: Springdale HS, Randy Sprinkle (S).

Stoneboro: Lakeview HS, Dianna Custer (S), Lisa Kerr (F).

State College: State College SHS, Walter Heverly (G), Linda Smith (S), Ben Manfull (F).

Tamaqua: Marian HS, Maria Brudish (S), Rosemary Stasek (F).

Tyrone: Tyrone Area HS, Micheal Robinson (L), Amy Smith (S), Tristia Hunter (F).

Union Town: Lafayette JHS, Lynn Wallace (S).

Warminster: Archbishop Wood HS for Girls, Rita De Santis (S), Catherin McIntyre (G); **Archbishop Wood HS for Boys**, Robert Trejo (F).

West Chester: Henderson HS, Paul Fukui (S, F).

West Lawn: West Lawn HS, Wilson Pfeifer (G), Michael Lanouette (F), Michael Wells (S).

Wyncote: Cheltenham HS, Amy Lutz (F), Arthur Karloff (S), Barbara Kolodner (L).

RHODE ISLAND

Barrington: Barrington HS, William Pearson (G), Sandra Matthews (F), Esther Friedman (S), Sandra Lee (L).

Cranston: Cranston HS East, Anna Felci (S), Diane Bishop (L), Shari Kizirian (F), Steven DeLuca (I).

Newport: Salve Regina College, Joan Wile (S), Pamela Collins (F).

North Providence: North Providence HS, Angela Gray (S).

Pawtucket: Tolman HS, Michele Robichaud (S), Roger Bacon (G), Albert Loureiro (Portuguese), Susan Babiec (F).

Providence: Central HS, Rafael Ramirez (I).

Riverside: St Mary Academy, Susan Metzger (F).

Wakefield: South Kingstown HS, Lance Ribeiro (S), James Walsh.

Warwick: Warwick Veteran's HS, Leslie Reid (S,F).

Toll Gate HS, Jennifer Lamountain (S), Linda Palian (F), Angela Romano (I), Linda Beard (G); **Pilgrim HS**, Susan Gould (F), Audrey Thresher (S), Jacqueline Gaule (I).

SOUTH CAROLINA

Sumter: Furman HS, Beth Tindal (F).

West Columbia: Airport HS, Molly Corley (S).

SOUTH DAKOTA

Sioux Falls: North American Baptist Seminary, Randall Kinnison (Hebrew), Neil Nelson (G).

Watertown: Watertown SHS, Mark Larson (G), Kris DeWall (S).

TENNESSEE

Memphis: St Agnes Academy, Ann Fitzgerald (F).

Whitehaven HS, Deborah Black (F).

TEXAS

Galveston: Ball HS, Vincent Uher (S), Mikki Caillovet (G).

Humble: Humble HS, Elaine Mateo (F).

Spring: Klein HS, Maria Jackson (S), Steve Vobach (G), Juanita Heimann (F).

VERMONT

Bennington: Mt. Anthony HS, Kelly Smith (S), Ed St John (F).

Brattleboro: Brattleboro UHS, Vincent Petrin (S), Jennifer Stone (F).

Fair Haven: Fair Haven UHS, Karl Anderson (F), Sandra Pickett (S).

Manchester: Burr & Burton Seminary, Maria Reyes (S), Kimberly Rizio

(F), Lucy Gobbi (G).

Middlebury: Middlebury UHS, Lori Blake (F), Melanie Blackmer (S).

Plainfield: Twinfield UHS, Donna Dix (F,L).

South Burlington: South Burlington HS, Erik Denman (L), Sharon Milhous (F), Sandra Wilson (S).

Stratton Mountain: Stratton Mountain Sch., Leslie Thompson (F).

VIRGINIA

Arlington: Yorktown HS, Bich Hai Pham-le (F), David Kelly (G), Guy Palmes (L), Kathi Overton (S); **Bishop O'Connell HS**, Virginia Knight (F), Mark Worris (L); **Woodlawn Secondary Program**, John Moran (F).

Charlottesville: Albemarle HS, Deborah Noble (F), Karen Hemmer (S).

Fairfax: Woodson HS, Eric Cruze (G), Linda Leeuwrik (S), Jeffrey Bostak (F), John Willems (L); **Robinson Secondary Sch.**, Jennifer Montague (F,G,L,S).

Harrisonburg: Eastern Mennonite HS, Douglas Lehman (F).

Richmond: Freeman HS, Victoria Houck (F), Valerie Jones (G), Elizabeth Whitham (S), Ann Kelly (L); **Manchester HS**, Ranu Ghatak (F).

Roanoke: Northside JHS, Andrew Gallion (G).

Springfield: West Springfield HS, Elizabeth Parker (G), Louis Bayard (F), Devra Levine (S).

Williamsburg: Lafayette HS, Stephanie Short (S), Kimberly Johnson (F), Kimberly Smith (L), Susan Orton (G).

WEST VIRGINIA

Clarksburg: Notre Dame HS, Debra Pratt (F).

Fairmont: Fairmont SHS, Pamela Turner (L), Shelley Stern (F), Allison Cooke (S).

WISCONSIN

Appleton: Xavier HS, Chris Collar (F), Linda Balthazor (S), Chris Grishabor (G).

Milwaukee: Custer HS, Linda Rehfeld (G).

Waukesha: Waukesha Central Middle Sch., Andrea Groteluschen (S), Becky Cope (F); **Horning Middle Sch.**, Vicki Shipler (G); **Waukesha South HS**, Michela Love (F).

Northeast Conference Officers and Directors, 1954-1982

Anderssen, Theodore [Yale U.]* U. of Texas, Director 1954-56.

Andrews, Oliver, Jr., U. of Connecticut, Director 1971-74.

Arndt, Richard, Columbia U., Director 1961.

Arsenault, Philip E., Montgomery County (Md.) Public Schools, Local Chairman 1967, 1970; Director 1971, 1973-74; Vice Chairman 1975; Conference Chairman 1976.

Atkins, Jeannette, Staples (Westport, Conn.) HS, Director 1962-65.

Baird, Janet, U. of Maryland, Local Chairman 1974.

Bashour, Dora, [Hunter C.], Secretary 1963-1964; Recording Secretary 1965-68.

Baslaw, Annette S., [Teachers C.], Hunter C., Local Chairman 1973.

Bayerschmidt, Carl F., Columbia U., Conference Chairman 1961.

Bennett, Ruth, Queens C., Local Chairman 1975-76.

Berlin, Gerald A., Rutgers U., Local Chairman 1960.

Berwald, Jean-Pierre, U. Mass.-Amherst, Director 1980-83.

Bird, Thomas E., Queens C., Editor 1967-68; Director 1969.

Bishop G. Reginald, Jr., Rutgers U., Editor 1960, 1965; Director 1961-62, 1965, 1968; Vice Chairman 1966; Conference Chairman 1967.

Bishop, Thomas W., New York U., Local Chairman 1965.

Born, Warren C., [ACTFL], Editor 1974-79.

Bostroem, Kyra, Westover School, Director 1961.

Bottiglia, William F., MIT, Editor 1957, 1962-63; Director 1964.

Bourque, Jane M., [Stratford (Conn.) Public Schools], Director 1974-75; Vice Chairman 1976; Conference Chairman 1977.

Bree, Germaine, [New York U., U. of Wisconsin] Wake Forest U., Conference Chairman 1955. Editor 1955.

Brooks, Nelson.† [Yale U.], Director 1954-57, 1960-61; Vice Chairman 1959.

Brown, Christine L., West Hartford (Conn.) Public Schools, Director 1982-85.

Cadoux, Remunda [Hunter C.], Vice Chairman 1969; Conference Chairman 1970.

Campbell, Hugh [Roxbury Latin School] Rocky Hill Country Day School, Director 1966-67.

Churchill, J. Frederick, Hofstra U., Director 1966-67; Local Chairman 1971-72.

Ciotti, Marianne C., [Vermont State Department of Education, Boston U.] Barre (Vt.) Public Schools, Director 1967.

Cincinnato, Paul D., Farmingdale (N.Y.) Public Schools, Director 1974-77; Vice Chairman 1978, Conference Chairman 1979.

Cintas, Pierre F., [Dalhousie U.], Penn. St. U.-Ogontz, Director 1976-79.

Clark, John L.D., [ETS] CAL, Director 1976-1978, Vice Chairman 1979, Conference Chairman 1980.

Clark, Richard P., Newton (Mass.) HS, Director 1967.

Clemons, Brenda Frazier [Rutgers U.] U. of Connecticut, Director 1972-75.

Cobb, Martha, Howard U., Director 1976-77; Recording Secretary 1978.

Covey, Delvin L., [Montclair State C.] Spring Arbor C., Director 1964-65.

Crawford, Dorothy B., Philadelphia HS for Girls, Conference Chairman 1956.

Dahme, Lena F., Hunter C., Local Chairman 1958; Director 1959.

Darcey, John M., West Hartford (Conn.) Public Schools, Director 1978-81. Vice Chairman 1982, Conference Chairman 1983.

Del Olmo, Filomena Peloro, [Hackensack (N.J.) Public Schools], Fairleigh Dickinson U., Director 1960-63.

De Napoli, Anthony J., Local Co-chairman. 1980-82, Director 1982-85.

Didsbury, Robert, Weston (Conn.) JHS, Director 1966-69.

Dodge, James W., Middlebury C., Editor 1971-73; Secretary-Treasurer 1974-83.

Dostert, Leon E.†, [Georgetown U.] Occidental C., Conference Chairman 1959.

Dufau, Micheline, U. of Massachusetts, Director 1976-79.

Dye, Joan C., Hunter C., Local Co-chairman 1978.

Eaton, Annette, Howard U., Director 1967-70.

Eddy, Frederick D.,† [U. of Colorado], Editor 1959; Director 1960.

Eddy, Peter A., [CAL/ERIC], CIA, Director 1977-78.

Edgerton, Mills F., Jr., Bucknell U., Editor 1969; Director 1970; Vice Chairman 1971; Conference Chairman 1972.

Elling, Barbara E., SUNY at Stony Brook, Director 1980-83.

Feindler, Joan L., East Williston (N.Y.) Public Schools, Director 1969-71; Vice Chairman 1972; Conference Chairman 1973.

Flaxman, Seymour, [New York U.] City C. of New York, Editor 1961; Director 1962.

Freeman, Stephen A., [Middlebury C.], Director 1957-60.

Fulton, Renee J., New York City Board of Education, Director 1955.

Gaarder, A. Bruce, USOE, Director 1971-74.

Geary, Edward J., [Harvard U.] Bowdoin C., Conference Chairman 1962.

Geno, Thomas H., U. of Vermont, Director 1975-76; Vice Chairman 1977; Conference Chairman 1978, Recording Secretary 1979, Editor 1980-81.

Gilman, Margaret†, Bryn Mawr C., Editor 1956.

Glaude, Paul M., N.Y. State Department of Education, Director 1963-66.

Golden, Herbert H., Boston U., Director 1962.

Grew, James H., [Phillips Acad.], Director 1966-69.

Hartie, Robert W., Queens C., Local Chairman 1966.

Harrison, John S., Baltimore County (Md.) Public Schools, Local Co-Chairman 1979, 1983.

Hayden, Hilary, O.S.B., [St. Anselm's Abbey School], Vice Chairman 1970; Conference Chairman 1971.

Hayes, Alfred S.†, CAL, Vice Chairman 1963; Conference Chairman 1964.

Hernandez, Juana A., Hood C., Director 1978-81.

Holzmann, Albert W., Rutgers U., Director 1960.

Jalbert, Emile H. [Thayer Acad.] Berkshire Comm. C., Local Chairman 1962.

Jebe, Suzanne, [Guilford (Conn.) HS], Minn. Dept. of Ed., Director 1975-76; Recording Secretary 1977.

Johnston, Marjorie C. [USOE], Local Chairman 1964.

Jones, George W., Jr., Norfolk (Va.) Public Schools, Director 1977-80.

Kahn, Timothy M., S. Burlington (Vt.) HS, Director 1979-82.

Keesee, Elizabeth, USOE, Director 1966-70.

Kellenberger, Hunter†, [Brown U.], Conference Chairman 1954; Editor 1954.

Kesler, Robert, Phillips Exeter Acad., Director 1957.

Kibbe, Doris E., Montclair State C., Director 1968-69.

La Follette, James E., Georgetown U., Local Chairman 1959.

La Fontaine, Hernan, New York City Board of Education Director 1972.

*Where a change of academic affiliation is known, the earlier address appears in brackets.

Lenz, Harold, Queens C., Local Chairman 1961.

Lepke, Helen S., Kent St. U., Director 1981-84.

Lester, Kenneth A., Connecticut State Dept. of Education, Recording Secretary 1982.

Levy, Harry, [Hunter C.] Fordham U., Editor 1958; Director 1959-61; Conference Chairman 1963.

Levy, Stephen L., New York City Board of Education, Local Co-Chairman 1978, 80-82, Director 1980-83.

Lieberman, Samuel, Queens C., Director 1966-69.

Lipton, Gladys C., [New York City Board of Education], Anne Arundel County (Md.) Public Schools, Director 1973-76.

Lloyd, Paul M., U. of Pennsylvania, Local Chairman 1963.

Locke, William N., MIT, Conference Chairman 1957; Director 1958-59.

Loew, Helene Z., N.Y. State Education Dept., Director 1977-79; Vice Chairman 1980; Conference Chairman 1981.

MacAllister, Archibald T.†, [Princeton U.], Director 1955-57; 1959-61.

Masciantonio, Rudolph, School District of Philadelphia, Director 1969-71.

Mead, Robert G., Jr., U. of Connecticut, Director 1955; Editor 1966; Vice Chairman 1967; Conference Chairman 1958, Editor 1982-83.

Mesnard, Andre, Barnard C., Director 1954-55.

Micozzi, Arthur L., Baltimore County (Md.) Public Schools, Local Committee Chairman, 1977, 79, 83; Director 1979-82.

Mirsky, Jerome G., [Jericho (N.Y.) SHS], Shoreham-Wading River (N.Y.) HS, Director 1970-73; Vice Chairman 1974; Conference Chairman 1975.

Nelson, Robert J., [U. of Pennsylvania] U. of Illinois, Director 1965-68.

Neuse, Werner, [Middlebury C.], Director 1954-56.

Obstfeld, Roland, Northport (N.Y.) HS, Recording Secretary 1976.

Pane, Remigio U., Rutgers U., Conference Chairman 1960.

Paquette, Andre, [Middlebury C.] Laconia (N.H.) Public Sch., Director 1963-66; Vice Chairman 1968; Conference Chairman 1969.

Parks, Carolyn, U. of Md., Recording Secretary 1981.

Perkins, Jean, Swarthmore C., Treasurer 1963-64; Conference Chairman 1966.

Phillips, June K., Indiana U. of Pa., Director 1979-82, Vice Chairman 1983; Conference Chairman 1984.

Prochoroff, Marina, [MLA Materials Center], Director 1962-64.

Ramirez, Mario L., School District of Philadelphia, Director 1974.

Reilly, John H., Queens C., Local Chairman 1968-69; Director 1970.

Sandstrom, Eleanor L., School District of Philadelphia, Director 1975-78.

Selvi, Arthur M., Central Connecticut State C., Director 1954.

Senn, Alfred, U. of Pennsylvania, Director 1956.

Serafino, Robert, New Haven (Conn.) Public Schools, Director 1969-73.

Sheppard, Douglas C. [SUNY at Buffalo] Arizona State U., Director 1968-71.

Shilaeff, Ariadne, Wheaton C., Director 1978-80.

Shuster, George N., [U. of Notre Dame], Conference Chairman 1958.

Simches, Seymour O., Tufts U., Director 1962-65; Vice Chairman 1965.

Sims, Edna N., U. of D.C., Director 1981-84.

Sister Margaret Pauline, Emmanuel C., Director 1957, 1965-68; Recording Secretary 1969-1975.

Sister Margaret Therese, Trinity C., Director 1959-60.

Sister Mary Pierre, Georgian Court C., Director 1961-64.

Sparks, Kimberly, Middlebury C., Director 1969-72.

Starr, Wilmarth H., [U. of Maine] New York U., Director 1960-63, 1966; Vice Chairman 1964; Conference Chairman 1965.

Steer, Alfred G., Jr., Columbia U., Director 1961.

Stein, Jack M.†, [Harvard U.], Director 1962.

Tamarkin, Toby, Manchester (Conn.) Comm. College, Director 1977-80, Vice Chairman 1981, Conference Chairman 1982.

Thompson, Mary P., [Glastonbury (Conn.) Public Schools], Director 1957-62.

Trivelli, Remo J., U. of R.I., Director 1981-84.

Tursi, Joseph, SUNY at Stony Brook, Editor 1970; Director 1971-72; Vice Chairman 1973; Conference Chairman 1974.

Valette, Rebecca, Boston C., Director 1972-75.

Vasquez-Amaral, Jose, Rutgers U., Director 1960.

Walker, Richard H., Bronxville (N.Y.) HS, Director 1954.

Walsh, Donald D.†, [MLA], Director 1954; Secretary-Treasurer 1965-73.

White, Emile Margaret, [District of Columbia Public Schools], Director 1955-58.

Woodford, Protase E., Educational Testing Service, Director 1982-85.

Yakobson, Helen B., George Washington U., Director 1959-60.